THE

LITERARY PANORAMA

FOR JANUARY, 1807.

Review of the Events and Treaties which established the Balance of Power in Europe, and the Balance of Trade in favour of Great Britain. 8vo. pp. 181. 1796. Not published.

The Volume before us is another of those compilations which owe their existence to the commands of Authority, and manifest the attention and research of those who occupied the primary stations of national confidence.

In our last number we described the records of History as a kind of prolonged or extensive experience: and where the information they supply, with the principles fairly deducible from it, are applicable, the advantages they communicate are incalculable. But, events may arise, which baffle every principle supported by history; nor can experience supply instruction adequate to the exigencies of those to whom the most important concerns of the commonwealth are committed. Under such uncertainties, speculative minds may be excused if they indulge, with moderation, the bent of their genius, and contemplate events dependent on contingencies, as if they already existed. Often are such minds tempted, almost irresistibly, to anticipate circumstances which futurity alone can disclose. With a kind of prophetic spirit they expect, they infer, they conclude, and advise. All must acknowledge that the exercise of rational foresight distinguishes man from brute, and while restrained within the limits of modesty, ought not to be censured, however results may differ from its happiest conjectures. But enlightened minds, though speculative, will nevertheless, if possible, support their opinions by arguments derived from facts, and will avail themselves of whatever assistance the page of knowledge offers. The volume before us is an instance of this: it is partly historical, partly speculative. We may safely rely on the information it presents, without attaching ourselves to its conjectures. Indeed, we rather wave the consideration of these; as our readers will perceive by the date of this volume, that their reference was to a state of things very different from that of the present time.

There is much uncertainty whether the idea of a balance of power had occupied the minds of British statesmen, previous to the reformation in religion, the discovery of a passage by sea to India, that of America, and the rise of the Protestant states of the United Provinces. These events produced a distinction, apparently unknown before, between the landed, or continental states, and the maritime, or naval powers. Germany or Hungary, for instance, placed in the heart of the European continent, were not affected by the discovery of new worlds: their situation excluded them from the sea: while every port on the coast of Europe, because capable of intercourse with these discoveries, was capable by the same means of acquiring an importance, a dignity, and a power, the extent and *spring* of which could not be calculated by any thing which had occurred in our part of the globe. This was placed beyond conjecture by the struggle between the rising states of Holland, which addicted themselves to maritime affairs, whereby they acquired greatness, and the landed power with which they had to contend; a power eminent in heroism and in discipline, but incapable of tyrannizing over both land and sea at the same time.

No doubt but these preponderating advantages of the sea coast, arose from the facility of effecting an interchange of fo-

reign commodities (which is commerce) independent of every interference or prohibition of the continental states, to whom this power was effectually denied. Interior districts may produce, and may deliver their productions to their immediate neighbours, but they cannot insure the reception of their commodities by a third party.

Commerce, then, is the foundation of power on the coast; production is the foundation of power on the Continent: production of men, which forms armies, production of food, which supports armies when formed, production by skill and art, the objects and subjects of commerce, but not commerce itself.

The extent of continental ambition is, after every effort, bounded by the sea; and where continental power terminates maritime power commences: this is so much more extensive than continental power, as the sea is a more ready communication to every residence of civilized man.

The necessity of maintaining in Europe an equilibrium between the sea and the land, could not have been suspected till the capabilities of both were in activity, and these could not be in activity till the habit of performing long voyages, had raised navigation to degrees of excellence formerly unknown; till the productions received by sea from foreign climes had, by finding their value, furnished fresh stimuli to the spirit of adventure, and fresh objects of desire to those who regarded them; we may add, till distant settlements had held out temptations of seizure to the politician, who saw in them either a prospect of future gains, or equivalents for military misfortunes and repulses suffered nearer home.

It is not of indispensable consequence to our present enquiries, whether the balance of power rose to importance with the protestant religion, and with the states of Holland, or, whether it was first understood among us when this protestant kingdom felt the necessity of supporting other communities of the same public faith, and of curbing the insolence, together with the power, of those catholic sovereigns who had manifested the most bitter enmity against it. Certain it is, that the reformation was an event extremely interesting, in a political point of view. It broke asunder one link of that chain which had connected christianized Europe, into one whole, however distributed under different governments; and which had united Britain with Europe, though separated from it, at least as much by manners and by character, as by the narrow sea which surrounds it.

Holland and Britain professing the same religion, were induced on many occasions to make common cause with each other: they had the same enemies; the same caution, the same vigilance, was necessary for one, as for the other; neither could suffer singly: both when united were reciprocally strengthened by the union; when separated, each was enfeebled, and suffered no trifling detriment by the separation. The maintenance of that power which she had materially contributed to raise, was a leading object of British policy; and her most enlightened statesmen protected with every effort the barrier which defended her: nor indeed, till, in evil hour, this barrier was destroyed by the Emperor Joseph II., was there a possibility of those devastating plagues overwhelming Holland, which at length have converted her republic into a kingdom, and her citizens into subjects not only of a foreign sovereign, but of an upstart usurper.

France has been for ages intent on enlarging the limits of her empire towards the north; the Netherlands were her object; not merely for their own intrinsic value, but because they were the seat of the English trade, and the channel by which the commodities of this country were conveyed to distant parts of the continent. So far therefore as Britain concerned herself in maintaining the balance of power in Europe, we may consider this island as keeping a perpetual watch, or conflict, against the encroachments of France, and France as endeavouring to obtain, by stratagem or by force, a controul over the mercantile speculations of England.

We shall present a concise notice of those agreements by which the trade of England was fixed to the Low Countries.

In 1274, Edward I. of England, formed a commercial alliance with Guy Earl of Flanders, a transaction the more memorable, from its having brought the Flemish artificers in woollens to resort to

England, and from its having given a decided superiority to our staple.*

In 1336, Edward III. by treaty with the Earl of Flanders, fixed the staple of English wool at Bruges. This led to other conventions mutually advantageous,† notwithstanding Antwerp had, by this time, risen into commercial importance, and established its trade with the Italian republics of Venice and Genoa. Other treaties were formed in 1411 by Henry IV., in 1446 by Henry VI., in 1467 by Edward IV., which treaty was established for thirty years. Ghent, Ypres, and other towns of Brabant, were now included; and in 1495, Henry VII. and Philip, Archduke of Austria and Flanders, stipulated, that the subjects of both states should enjoy reciprocal privileges of trade in all commodities, subject only to the duties and customs which had been paid during the last fifty years. At the close of this century the passage to India by sea was discovered; also the continent of America; this naturally diminished the importance of Venice and Genoa, (which had hitherto enjoyed the Eastern trade exclusively) and with them of its correspondents, including Antwerp. But the most severe shock to the trade of Antwerp, was the revolution in the Netherlands, and the capture and plunder of this capital by the Duke of Parma, 1585. On this occasion the city lost 3,000,000 of pistoles, with 6000 inhabitants.

Queen Elizabeth formed her first treaty with the States-General in 1578, intending at the same time, to check the growing power of France and Spain, and to keep open her trade with Germany, by means of the rivers which connect that country with Holland, and with the sea.

We find other treaties in succeeding ages, covenanting for advantages to the English trade in the Netherlands: as James I. in 1604, Charles I. in 1630, Charles II. in 1667, which renews former stipulations in express terms, at large. In 1713, a convention for a provisional regulation of trade in the Netherlands, was concluded at Utrecht. So late as 1752, commissioners were appointed to open a conference at Brussels, the object of which was the placing British trade in or through those provinces, on the footing of ancient treaties, and regulating the same definitively. This attempt failed: partly because the Dutch did not wish to see the transit through the Low Countries so advantageously regulated as to become *too favorable* for the merchants and agents there; partly because pecuniary difficulties prevented the government of the Low Countries from paying certain debts; which the English and Dutch commissioners regarded as a *sine quâ non*.

To what degrees of commercial prosperity these countries *might* have attained, may be inferred from the state of Antwerp in 1560, which city, about 18 years before the revolution in the Dutch Netherlands, had six classes of merchants: *viz.* Germans, Danes, Easterlings or Balticmen, Italians, Spaniards, and English. Armuyden, in the island of Walcheren, which was the port of rendezvous for the shipping of Antwerp, had often 500 vessels in its harbour.

The importance of the Netherlands is apparent from the mere mention of these circumstances; nor did it altogether cease, when England had the choice of transmitting her commodities through Flanders, or through Holland. Hence we see the policy of France, in endeavouring to obtain first influence, direct or indirect, and then sovereignty, over these countries, and the rivers which form the highways of their commerce.

Nor is this all: for as these coasts are opposite to those of England, and are every way adapted to the creation and support of a maritime force, it is natural to infer, that they are capable of becoming the bitterest enemies of this island, and of disturbing its repose, at their pleasure.

Our best informed politicians, therefore, thought it was as necessary for Britain as for Holland that the French power should be confined within certain limits. This was a principal argument in vindication of the barrier treaty; by which certain fortified towns, forming an *outline* to the French dominions, were garrisoned by Dutch troops, and were specially protected by stipulations. It was the opinion of Lord Townshend and Mr. Poyntz, that "if France should once be suffered to get possession of the Netherlands, their situation is such, that it will not be in the

* Rymer's Fœdera, Vol. II. p. 32.
† Ibid, Vol. V. p. 38.

power of all Europe to set any bounds to the progress of her arms."*

When France was allied to Austria by marriage, the Emperor Joseph II, supposed he might place sufficient confidence in his brother-in-law to abandon this barrier, as it was not very agreeable to have his towns garrisoned by the troops of other states. He accordingly gave orders for dismantling these towns, and the troops having no fortifications to defend, retired of course. This false step, as the writer of this article ventured to predict, admitted into the Netherlands much worse enemies than *ever could have been experienced* in the House of Bourbon.

Directly after the removal of the barrier against France in the Austrian Netherlands, that insidious power attempted a change in the Dutch constitution; and nothing but its own interior situation prevented the accomplishment of its ambitious schemes.

What France could not then effect, has since taken place; and we have seen, not the Netherlands only, but the whole of the United Provinces become French; and even the extension of this power further north still, by its influence, if not by its actual possession.

Under these circumstances, the balance of power is apparently destroyed: for the continental power, France, has in a manner annihilated the maritime power, Holland; and the catholic power, France, has overwhelmed the protestant power, Holland. The trade also of Britain has lost its former channels, the politics of Britain have lost their former ally, the religion of Britain has lost one of its former supports, and the connection of Britain with the rest of Europe has lost that most direct, that shortest medium of intercourse, which it had maintained for ages.

Such are the facts: speculations on them should, as we observed, be marked by moderation and modesty, but if guided by these, they may be, perhaps, neither improper for us to suggest, nor unacceptable to our readers at the present eventful period.

We have considered commerce as the foundation of power among maritime states; and the prosperity of commerce as augmenting, not merely their wealth, but their actual and effective resources of every description. In like manner, the decline of commerce is the enfeebling of their strength; as it fails they weaken, and when it sinks they sink with it.

To monopolize commerce is not within the ability of any one kingdom or country; because no country can supply all which is wanted by the whole world besides, and take in return every thing which the whole world has to exchange. There will therefore always be, as there always have been, several centers or marts where commerce has established its seat; and if these are in possession of a trade, the productions of which are necessary to the other establishments of commerce, they may consider themselves as likely to be permanent, as the vicissitudes of mundane events permit.

From the general agreement of mankind to consider the precious metals as wealth, no less than as the medium of exchange and payment, Spain, who alone has mines of these metals in the new world, must retain her commercial importance, while she retains the mines; and to her will the mercantile world look expectingly, while her treasures are the reward of their adventures.

Hence Cadiz has long been a centre of exchange; because, the value of the precious metals arriving here from America, depending on their scarcity, or their abundance, was here first estimated; and the knowledge of these particulars, enabled the merchant to predict their probable effect on the state of commercial credit. From Cadiz too these treasures were distributed over Europe; this city must, therefore, retain a relative importance.

We learn however, that lately, several other ports of Spain are allowed to participate in the American trade; the exclusive privilege of Cadiz consequently is abridged; and the character of this depôt of gold and silver is proportionately diminished, though by reason of convenience and the force of habit, it may long continue to exist. The productions of Spain sent by her to her colonies are probably increased by this measure; since the countries around these opened ports will naturally avail themselves of the opportunity, and endeavour to export their manufactures. This may benefit the kingdom at

* Barrier Treaty vindicated, p. 23.

large, but it does not benefit the port of Cadiz.

There are also other causes which may render a country the seat of commerce: such as situation, convenience, enterprise, or even the mercantile manners of its inhabitants: of this we have an instance in Holland.

The carrying trade was the great dependence of Holland: of course, it was subject to the good opinion of those for whom Holland carried. If they conceived dislike, from whatever cause, or even without cause, the trade was ruined: or if, as the fact eventually proved to be, they should undertake to carry for themselves, farewell the Hollander's occupation. It appears, that about 1740, a material change took place in the Dutch carrying trade. The other maritime nations of Europe undertook to be carriers of their own produce; they accordingly transported it to Holland in their own bottom, and left it there, to be sold by commission. The Dutch merchants, under this innovation, gave two-thirds of the value in advance; and with this portion the ship-master, under instructions from his owners, either purchased other goods as required at home, with which to return, or returned with the profits of his freight. Others of more extensive conceptions, having received Dutch bills for two-thirds of their cargoes, resorted to those other centres of exchange, Hamburgh, Cadiz, or Leghorn, &c. where these bills were equal to money, and there purchased such commodities as they thought proper; or proceeded, if they judged expedient, to the very countries which produced the commodities they wanted. Thus the established credit of Dutch bills, acted detrimentally on their carrying trade; and it is the opinion of the best informed merchants, that in a short time the Dutch must have lost a large proportion of their carrying and depôt trade, even if favourable times had permitted them to conceal the fact, by their external equanimity.

This statement explains the cause of the rapid, and hitherto unexplained decay of the Dutch navy: the public nursery for seamen was diminished with their employment: the arsenals and magazines of stores were gradually impoverished; partly because fewer vessels were sent out, by which to receive them, and partly, because the funds necessary to pay the purchase of these stores were themselves deficient.

During the present war the Americans have got possession of a part of the carrying trade. This is certainly not favourable to the Dutch, though the probability is, that the distance of America from Europe, will prevent that country from retaining it; yet commerce when diverted from its old channels does not always entirely resume the very same.

Holland, however, having sums of money in the funds of most European states, for which it draws the interest, has inducements to maintain an intercourse with those states. Finding also a profit in receiving these remittances in goods, it will, almost by necessity, continue so much commerce as these goods with their accessories will maintain. This, together with the circumstance that these remittances are drawn for, through the medium of bills of exchange will continue a centre of exchanges in this country, in a mercantile sense; without its being of any very great importance in a political sense, or enabling Holland by any extensive exertion of credit, to hazard a considerable and sudden effort for the recovery of any of its ancient means of power, and wealth: since such an effort if unsuccessful, would only, like the paroxysm of a patient in a fever, exhaust the strength of the agent without making the smallest progress toward recovery.

As to France, it is observable, that although this kingdom by her Southern provinces had near access to Venice, and almost touched upon Genoa, as by her Northern provinces she almost adjoined to Bruges and Antwerp, yet commerce could not be brought to take its course straight through France; but circumnavigated her shores, and united the principal marts of Europe, not by a direct line, but by a circumflex. The centers of commercial exchanges never settled in her cities. Venice was a center of exchange in the South; Bruges was another in the North; Antwerp was another;——when interrupted at Bruges, or expelled from Antwerp, did exchange settle in France? No; it went further North to Amsterdam; and when removed from Amsterdam, it went still farther off from France, to Hamburgh. The center of commercial deal-

ings indicated by the settlement of exchange, seems to have receded as France advanced, and to have eluded her grasp, as she endeavoured to seize it.

We may draw the same inference from the issue of French interference with America. When France thought to ruin Britain beyond redemption, by depriving her of her transatlantic provinces, could all her treaties secure to her the trade of America? Is she, has she ever been, the depôt for American productions? The fact is directly the reverse; the interference of France with America, promoted her own downfall; and the absolute termination of this insidious measure is still in the womb of futurity.

After this, it is a kind of bathos to enquire——what was the issue of the French connections with India, in a commercial point of view? For certainly France never was an European emporium for Indian commodities:——or, what proportion of the precious metals extracted from the bowels of the earth and sent to Spain, centers in France? And on what principle?—in exchange for goods? (*i. e.* commerce) very little indeed: and if as tribute, when did *that* establish a centre of commercial exchange?

If, then, as we have seen, the seat of commercial exchanges fled before the efforts of France, we may infer with little risque of fallacy, that although Hamburgh might fall under the power of this destructive Colossus, that city would no longer retain its importance among the commercial marts of Europe. The probability is that trade would travel further North; and Gothenburgh might stand a fair chance of becoming what we have lately seen Amsterdam and Hamburgh. It is indeed, remarkable, that commerce seldom settles a second time in places from whence it has been ejected; unless the cause of ejection has been transient though violent, or some peculiarity of situation has restricted it to such a measure, by excluding an alternative. We might else suppose, that a renewal of those mercantile principles, and branches of trade, which formerly established and raised to eminence the Hanseatic league, is a circumstance not impossible: and that commerce after having been attracted Southward by the wise regulations and sedate policy of the Dutch, by the tolerant principles of religion established in the United Provinces, by the liberty there established, and by the mercantile spirit there displayed, would, as these blessings ceased to engage her stay retire to the retreats she had quitted, and again make the shores of the Baltic her abode.

That we have said little on the subject of Venice, Genoa, and Leghorn, the southern seats of commercial exchange, is easily accounted for. Venice has long ago seen her best days: she may at her carnival attract strangers to gaze at the absurdity of her painted mask, but she will entice few merchants to establish themselves within her territories, or to attempt the restoration of her fallen greatness. She is under French dominion. Genoa is merged in France; as she never possessed a territory capable of supporting extensive commerce, what should induce commerce to prefer Genoa? Leghorn may yet continue a sickly memorial of what it has been, but extensive trade is not likely to settle in Leghorn.*

Thus we see that the dominion of France is the torpedo touch to commerce. This is not the place to enquire into the causes of this fact: we may however, hint, that France is a productive country, a military establishment, a continental power, under this character she may affect, and unquestionably has greatly affected, the balance of the Continent. Commerce is jealous of military *friends*, for what should restrain them when pressed by occasion, from making free with a trifle, or so, by way of *forced loan*.—Whereas the very word *force* terrifies commerce into alienation of mind: every guinea borrowed *à la Française*, prevents a million from being entrusted where such events may recur.

We shall not be understood to predict the total cessation of French trade; but we mean by what we have said, to infer, that however France may export her own commodities, and receive those of others, which is barter; she will never become the depôt of the property of other nations. Nobody will send goods to France, as was done to Holland, to meet another market: to await an opportunity of being sold; taking French bills in lieu of money, and with them repairing to any part of Europe, in full persuasion that these bills are in payment equal to cash. Nor will this be the case with respect to any country

* The consideration of Malta, as a substitute for these marts, is purposely deferred.

under French dominion: *i. e.* on the large and extended scale of commerce.

If commerce will not settle in France, because France is a military nation, we have no reason to conclude that it will flourish in Holland, which must be held in subjection to France by military power. If before the revolution which has completed its misfortunes, the commerce of Holland was radically declining, and its power, of course, by what discernible assistance on the part of France, shall this be revived? What has France done, what can France do, to restore that confidence which *was* the life of Holland, but which never was the characteristic of France, and which every French institution and interference is calculated to drive further and further off?

But, though it is unquestionably a kind of satisfaction, to know that our enemies are not likely to reap from their operations, those advantages which they promised themselves, yet it is extremely natural to enquire, with still greater interest, what may be the fate of our beloved island? If, in answer to such a question, we were to indulge our *wishes*, very copious indeed would be our reply: but, in forming rational conjectures as to events, it is our duty to circumscribe our *expectations* within the bounds of probability.

If the foreign trade of England was making progress before the Dutch states were formed, why should it despair of maintaining itself after they are annihilated? What parts of the world have been since discovered as channels of trade, which were not then known? What commodities does England since produce, which were not then her property? What connections has England since formed, which were not then in existence? What parts of the world look to England now as to a center, which then had not heard of her? What is the degree of confidence placed in her now, and what her estimation, among those who have been her regular correspondents?

The answers to these questions would shew, that important as her trade through Holland and Flanders always was, and ever must be, yet that numerous branches of it have originated, have prospered, and may continue to prosper, independent of whatever exclusions the sovereigns of Holland and Flanders may think proper to institute. Hitherto those countries have more reason to regret the seeing of the golden gain going beside them, than Britain has to grieve at the inconvenience she experiences from the necessity of travelling somewhat round about, to effect her purpose; or of permitting her neighbours to smuggle her commodities into their countries, for which they have first paid her; instead of delivering them openly as becomes a fair and honourable dealer.

We have admitted that the import of the precious metals secures a commerce to Spain; that the reception of interest and the continuance of antient habits, the advantages of situation, and the persevering character of the Dutch, are likely to perpetuate a slowly moving commerce through Holland; it follows, that Britain is not to expect to monopolize the commerce of the whole world. The idea is popular, but it is idle. Even were the trade of these or other nations destroyed, it does not follow that Britain would, to use a common phrase, "step into their shoes." We have already said that no one kingdom can supply all the world: commerce would end, where absolute monopoly begun.

Nevertheless, so far as concerns the power derived from commerce, these countries would not be formidable. Some profit, no doubt must attend their trade: but this would be absorbed in their public expenses, which at present greatly exceed it: and where there is neither overplus, nor credit, on what has political exertions to depend? Understanding by "political exertions" the ability of injuring others, which is a very different idea from that of self defence.

Our readers will perceive that our opinion inclines to the persuasion, that however France may have destroyed the continental part of the balance of power, yet she has not effected, and probably cannot effect, all that she aims at. The sea is still open: she cannot shut it up: and though she has seized some of those countries which used to be most formidable on the sea, yet she has not acquired possession of that first principle, whence they derived their maritime strength; and to which no secondary principle ever was, or can be, a competent substitute.

In directing the effect of our reasonings to Britain, it must be acknowledged, that this single state ought not to suppose itself to be equal in strength and consequence

with two: itself and Holland. It must have suffered by the loss of its friend: yet, that the suffering is not equal to what might be fancied on a superficial view, we presume to think we have already proved. Besides this, Great Britain has maintained some advantages, and acquired others, which enable her, as a member of the maritime part of the balance of power, to counterpoise in some degree, that disturbance of the continental part of the balance of power, which though distressing, has not hitherto as was intended, proved fatal to her. To this, the following reasons may have contributed.

1. Great Britain has maintained her credit as a commercial nation unimpaired: she is recognized among the mercantile marts as not only solvent but flourishing: and none hesitates to entrust her with goods, either for her own consumption, or as a depositary till they can be forwarded to those for whom they are intended.

2. Her trade with those countries from whence it is nominally excluded, is not entirely abrogated: nor do those countries wish it should be so. They are as willing to receive, as Britain is to deliver; the prohibition is not their own act and deed, but an unnatural force upon them, which, of consequence, they are perpetually intent on eluding. Holland, for instance, has money in the British funds,—what should incline Holland to reduce Britain to the incapacity of paying the interest of this money? is it not clearly to her advantage to receive British goods, by which she is paid her due, and which she can dispose of to great profit? It is in fact, a double gain.

We may also ask, whether the natives of any other country, purchased British goods to please Britain, or to benefit themselves? if that benefit still continues, will they not also continue to hanker after their usual supply? Will they keep their own commodities on their hands to perish, well knowing that with these they could procure the articles they wish for? Surely, not at the command of foreign despots; whatever patriotism might dictate were the quarrel national.

3. The trade of Britain is not confined to one channel; exclude it from this, others remain. The time is within our recollection when the loss of one branch of it, the American, was predicted to issue in our complete ruin: "the sun of "Britain was set." Has the event justified the prediction? When the countries were politically separated, what did America do with her productions? to what market did she wish to carry them? and where are now her chief dealings? In like manner, if excluded from one part of Europe, Britain trades with other parts; exclude her from the whole of Europe, were it possible,—she trades with all the rest of the world. But that it is not possible totally to exclude her, appears not only from what we have said, but from the complaints on the behalf of France, uttered by Ramel, a very well informed person. Vide Panorama, pp 43. And if British productions cannot be excluded from France, from Paris itself, *a fortiori*, they cannot be excluded from countries less closely watched by the governing power.

4. New channels of trade open to Britain, by the fall of those colonial possessions, which her enemies are unable to defend. This is not so much the result of British strength, as of her opponents' weakness: and it exposes their weakness in a glaring manner. At the same time, by undermining that commerce which had been the support of the parent European state, it rapidly augments the symptoms of decay long visible to a judicious eye, in the constitution of those powers which are unnaturally combined against this seat of commerce.

On the whole, we infer, that so far as the balance of power included an equipoise between the continent and the ocean, it is not destroyed by the convulsions on the continent; because the continent has not, in fact, materially encroached on the maritime power. The maritime power of Holland is not transferred to France a continental power, but to Britain, itself a maritime power, so that Britain now represents not only what she represented before the fall of Holland, but also great part of what Holland represented previous to that event.

That so far as the balance of power consisted of an equipoise between the catholic and the protestant religions, seeing it is the catholic powers which have chiefly suffered, in opposition to France,—that in France itself catholicism has experienced a severe shock,—that in Holland, the protestant power which has principally been

overwhelmed, protestantism has lost few of its votaries, if any; we conclude, that in the present state of men's minds on this subject, no great evil is to be dreaded on the behalf of religion.

That while we recommend with the most decisive earnestness a state of vigilance, of preparation, of expectation, of readiness to meet the worst, we see no reason to "despair of the common-"wealth;" no cause for dejection. Let Britons rouse the manly faculties of their minds and bodies, be true to themselves, be united against internal enemies, in every shape; and we stake all our credit, and the very existence of our work, on the affirmation that foreign enemies will never accomplish the ruin of this hitherto Providence-protected island.

Since this article was composed, France has seized Hamburgh, and confiscated the English property there: but to no great profit; for a *second* proclamation by the French general informs us, that the first brought in *too little*. We understand also, that a center of exchange is about to be fixed at Gottenburgh, as we had predicted.

The most remarkable piece of news, is, that Great Britain is BLOCKADED by Bonaparte; a circumstance of which we were, and probably should have continued, unconscious, if he had not manifested his good nature in acquainting us with it by public proclamation.

The Stranger in Ireland; or a Tour in the Southern and Western parts of that Country, in the Year 1805. By John Carr, Esq. Royal quarto, pp. 544., price £2. 5s. Phillips, London, 1806.

WE sincerely desire the prosperity of Ireland. By what means this may be best accomplished, opinions may be allowed to differ; but the object is, and must be, the wish of every well informed and considerate mind. Several centuries have rolled away, since Ireland ceased to be governed by its native rulers; and the lapse of time is not inconsiderable since it professed wholly to coalesce with Britain, its more powerful, and more extensive neighbour. The idea of having been subjugated is grating to the mind of every people; and tenure by conquest, is the worst of tenures by which sovereignty can be held. Instead of that attraction which should increase strength by union, such principles produce repulsion only, and repulsion once in activity is not easily reduced to simple quiescence. Every endeavour, therefore, should be made to banish the very supposition from the minds of those whom it is desirable should be fostered into complacency. Ireland had the further misfortune of maintaining a religion repugnant to that of her governors: so that, whatever attempts were made to promote her welfare, were beheld with half averted eyes, either by a political party, suspicious of whatever it had not assisted in deliberating; or by a religious party, jealous of being itself degraded, in proportion as any other was exalted.

The principle of universal toleration unhappily was unknown, or at least was not practised, when Ireland received the government of Britain. The protestants, therefore, insisted on establishing a supremacy, and the catholics on retaining a preponderance: while religion, in whose name the contest was carried on, almost execrated the end, so strongly she detested the means. The rights of conscience are sacred: and never ought those who differed in sentiment from the ruling power to have had the slightest cause for suspicion that in sacred things they were not free. Yet while they saw themselves under the necessity of sending their teachers to foreign parts to be themselves taught: and even of suffering a temporary absence of their children, with the same intent, was it possible they could congratulate themselves on their liberty? Was it possible, we might also ask, that youths educated in foreign countries and seminaries, should not imbibe the sentiments of those countries, and especially of those seminaries? and if such sentiments were bigotted, and extremely adverse to that state of things with which these youths were to be associated in future life, what harmony was likely to result? The present state of the continent has happily entrusted Britain with an opportunity of retrieving some of those errors, of which over-weening attachment to the best of causes cannot be admitted as a justification; and we hope that from this æra, a new scene of prosperity will open on Ireland, and that the happiness in reserve for the United Kingdom is inexpressibly superior to what

either past times have seen, or present times conceive.

Our wish for Ireland is, that its natives should be INSTRUCTED. Why should they not emulate our northern brethren, in respect of education? Not even the heroism of the Scots is so honorable to Scotland, as the general distribution of knowledge among its inhabitants. Equally brave, spirited, open, affable, equally capable of learning whether general or particular, with every talent for profiting by instruction, how is it, that ignorance, like an impenetrable mist, envelopes the sons of Hibernia? That only the upper classes of Ireland enjoy the advantages of information, while the mass of its population appears to be excluded, not merely from the interior of the temple of science, to which, indeed, their pretensions might be disallowed, but even from the lowest form in the vestibule or portico. Convinced as we are that little effectual or permanent can be accomplished in favour of the land of St. Patrick, till this cause of reproach shall be abrogated, we repeat our wishes that the amelioration of the state of this people may be begun, continued, and perseveringly promoted, by means of their INSTRUCTION.

Mr. Carr has rightly intitled his volume "a *Stranger* in Ireland:" for, though that island be only a few hours sail from England, it is little known by Englishmen in general. The state of Otaheite is perhaps as familiar to many among us, as that of our fellow subjects now united in the same Empire. We accept, therefore, with chearfulness, what information this lively writer affords, though not all it might be, nor all the purchaser has a right to expect at the price of his book. We are far from displeased that this active traveller has favoured the public with his remarks and sentiments, some of which are interesting; yet our *pocket* complains in a manner perfectly intelligible, of the value, which he has attached to his favours.

Mr. Carr begins his volume in rather a Hibernian manner, by informing us, that he got into the coach, but he does not tell us when, or where; he acquaints us also, that he sailed from Holyhead for Ireland, "in the morning about ten o'clock," but has forgot to mention in what month of the year, or what day of the month. However, he safely landed at Dublin; where he stayed till, as the weather was exceedingly beautiful, "he resolved on making an excursion into the county of Wicklow," while "the summer still extended its sway beyond the ordinary period of its reign; and although the season of autumn was arrived, not a leaf denoted decay." In his journey, he passes the Scalp, an issue between rocks, which is not only striking by its appearance to the eye, but is also interesting to the inquisitive geologist. A following scene, the Dargle, is of a kind entirely different, and certainly is one of the most interesting combinations of rural beauties in the island. Mr. C. returns from Wicklow to Dublin; and at "the close of September," determines on visiting the lake of Killarney, taking Limerick in his way.

In the course of this journey our author descries the bog of Allen, and gives as good a description of it as could be expected from a passing traveller. He describes Limerick pretty much at large, and proceeds to Killarney, and the lakes; which he explored under highly favourable circumstances. The beautiful scenery around these lakes, furnishes several pleasing opportunities for the exercise of Mr. C's pencil. He afterwards visits Cork, then Kilkenny, proceeds to Athy, and thence to Dublin by water. A tour to the north of Ireland concludes our author's visit to this country: but he is not very communicative of his remarks on this part of the island.

A visit of a few months (probably not *six* months) spent in traversing a great extent of country, is not precisely what might be wished for obtaining correct ideas of the state and character of the people, generally; of their commerce, arts, manners, and, what seems to have attracted the writer's notice accidentally, only, and then very slightly, their religion. If, then, we divide Mr. C's performance into two parts, 1. what relates to the country, and 2. what relates to the inhabitants, we shall commend the first of these as very creditable to the *inspecting* talents of our spirited traveller. He has seen the beauties of the country with an eye improved by skill in the arts of design: he has been struck with various combinations of picturesque beauty, and must have enjoyed many others which he did not condescend to minute down, at

the moment. A professed artist might, perhaps, have wished he could have resided for a while at some of these scenes; in order to profit by their *accidents*, morning, evening, moonlight, or what probably surpasses all in grandeur, the effect of a thunderstorm on the lake of Killarney!

But the second division we have hinted at, the inhabitants, is a much more important subject of consideration than scenery, or views; they may affect the eye, this affects the heart; and under that description we proceed to consider it.

Mr. C. describes the city of Dublin, as containing various edifices, extremely superb and striking; together with receptacles in which the poorer classes are thronged together in no moderate degree. We fear, from his account, that the middle rank of population, which is the source and support of national prosperity, is unhappily not very numerous: the connecting link between greatness and poverty is, if not altogether wanting, yet of too little estimation and importance. The same remark, might be made on the country at large; Mr. C. meets with many *gentlemen*, who treat him with great hospitality, and with many *cottagers* (or "cottiers") but the middling classes are seldom mentioned: and neither their fare nor their welfare is recorded.

It is difficult to fix any arrangement of remarks on a book so desultory as that before us. We shall, however, commence our extracts with an account of those particulars, the reformation of which is most earnestly to be desired.

The observation of the sacred day of rest is extremely relaxed in Ireland. Mr. C. observes "a Sunday with the peasantry in Ireland is not unlike the same day in France. After the hours of devotion, a spirit of gaiety shines upon every hour, the bag-pipe is heard, and every foot is in motion." p. 254. Those who have seen a Sunday in France, will understand this: those who have not, should be informed, that, as the fact is in Ireland, the *enjoyments* of the day begin soon after ten o'clock in the morning, and by noon all manner of what John Bunyan would call "carnal delights" are going forward. The censure attaches most severely to the priests; who certainly deal more in ceremonies than in morals, or they would teach their people better things.

We are of the same opinion, in respect to the lying and perjury which Mr. C. attaches to the character of the lower class of Irish. He tells us (p. 249) that "they will lie," and he repeatedly relates instances of their perjury; particularly (p. 378) "another fellow swore backwards and forwards ten times in about as many minutes"——and this is so common, that if a little bit of drollery accompany it, whenever such a culprit is "detected in the most abominable perjury, the audience is thrown into convulsions of merriment:" and again (p. 422) "I found perjury, if it had any thing of humour in it, seemed to be stripped of all its culpability": and again, (p. 524) "I have heard a fellow, mounted on the table as a witness, *lie in all directions*; the only consequences were, that he was thought very amusing, and was not credited." What then are the priests about? why do they not instruct their people in the nature of an oath, and its sanctions? Is this crime mentioned at auricular confession?—if yes, why do not confessors mark it with adequate reprobation?—if no, of what practical use is that institution, which suffers a crime so enormous, so flagrant, and so frequent, to escape its notice?

The following is a lamentable picture of the defective state of the church-establishment in Ireland. There are two thousand four hundred and thirty-six parishes, one thousand and one churches, and only three hundred and fifty-five glebe or parsonage-houses. The benefices or union parishes amount to one thousand one hundred and twenty: so that there are two thousand and eighty-one parishes, without any residence for the clergymen, and one thousand four hundred and thirty-five parishes without any churches. Where there are no glebe-houses, the resident clergyman rents a house; where he does not reside, his curate performs the service, and I was informed with tolerable regularity: but the inconvenience must be great, and residence from necessity rare. p. 49.

The relative proportion of catholics to protestants and all the cities of Munster, is full four to one; in the interior of the country it is ten to one; almost all the common people are of the first description, as well as the respectable merchants of the city.

Under the term protestants are comprehended all separatists from the catholic communion: the established church in this part of Ireland has very few followers; the mé-

thodists on the contrary, are rapidly encreasing. p. 420.

From this last remark we might be led to conclude that the Irish themselves perceive the necessity of following a *stricter* code of morals: for certainly the methodists do not prevail, by exceeding the catholic priests in indulgences.

The poorer parts of Dublin are pregnant with nuisances unusually destructive to health and comfort. In the ancient parts of the city the streets are generally very narrow, and the back-yards of the houses very confined. The greater number of these streets, with their numerous lanes and alleys, are tenanted by little shop-keepers, the labouring poor, and beggars crowded together to a degree painful and affecting to reflection. Mr. Whitelaw states, in his admirable essay on the population of Dublin, that a single apartment in one of these truly wretched habitations lets from one to two shillings per week, and to lighten this rent, two, three, and even four families become joint tenants. p. 54.

Such is the description given by our author of a part of the metropolis. With this might be connected some of his remarks on the city of Limerick. In the country we may find more health, but not much better accommodation.

An Irish cabbin, in general, is like a little antediluvian ark; for husband, wife and children, cow and calf, pigs, poultry, dog, and frequently cat, repose under the same roof in perfect amity. A whimsical calculation, some time since ascertained, that in eighty-seven cabins, there were one hundred and twenty full grown pigs, and forty-seven dogs. The rent of a cabin and potatoe plot in the county of Wicklow and neighbourhood, is from one to two guineas; the family live upon potatoes and butter-milk six days in the week, and instead of "an added pudding," the sabbath is generally celebrated by bacon and greens.

In those parts I found the price of potatoes to be eight shillings and fourpence the barrel (twenty stone to the barrel), and three quarts of butter-milk for a penny. The price of labour was sixpence halfpenny per day. Upon an average, a man, his wife, and four children will eat thirty-seven pounds of potatoes a day...Three pounds of good mealy potatoes are more than equivalent to one pound of bread. p. 151.

If we advance a step higher in society we find a class which should be comfortable, the agriculturists, subject to privations which appear almost incredible.

In Ireland there is a description of men, who are like as many ravenous wolves among the peasantry, known by the name of Middlemen. Between the actual proprietor, and the occupant of the land, there are frequently no less than four or five progressive tenants, who frequently never see the land which they hold, and which is assigned from one to the other until encumbered and dispirited by such a concatenation of exaction, instead of being able to make thrice the amount of his rent, as he ought to be enabled to do, namely, one-third for his landlord, another for the support of his family and the remaining part for contingencies, the last taker can scarcely, after infinite toil and privation, pay his immediate lord, and feed and clothe himself and family.

A farm was pointed out to me, in the south-west of Ireland, for which the occupier paid four hundred pounds per annum, a rent which in England is very respectable, and would secure, with common good husbandry and prudence, a very comfortable maintenance for the tenant and his family, and enable him to lay a little by; but instead of any appearance of comfort, the farmer was half-naked, and his wife and family in rags. How little the land must experience the re-invigorating benefits of good husbandry can easily be imagined. Without being slaves in fact, their condition is little better than vassalage in its most oppressive form. Potatoes and butter-milk, the food of an English hog, form the degrading repast of the Irish peasant; a little oatmeal is a delicacy; a Sunday bit of pork a great and rare luxury. Depressed to an equality with the beast of the field, he shares his sorry meal with his cow, his dog, and his pig, who frequently feed with him, as his equal associates, out of the same bowl. pp. 290, 291.

One of the best parts of Mr. Carr's work is that in which he gives a distressing, but we believe, a correct picture of the situation of Ireland in respect to its currency. The following extracts are a part of his account.

Nothing can impress a stranger more forcibly than the want of a mint coinage in Ireland, and (with an exception to certain portions in the north) the deplorable want of metallic specie throughout that country, to which may be added the exorbitant state of the exchange between the two countries. The production of a guinea in many parts of Ireland, excites as much curiosity as the display of a ruble, or a sicca rupee would. Upon the arrival of the first of those precious coins in Dublin, it speedily finds its way either to the banker's counter, or to the shops called specie shops, over the doors of which is written, "guineas bought and sold here, and bank notes exchanged for guineas." Here a guinea, exchanged for a bank of Ireland guinea note, was sometime since re-sold

at one pound three shillings, and one pound three shillings and sixpence: at present it is at one shilling, which is low. Small bank of England notes from one to ten pounds, are at a premium proportionate to guineas, being equally useful to travellers. Larger bank of England bills bear the same price as merchants' bills on London.

The want of silver specie is more particularly lamentable and embarrassing beyond imagination. Many of the great quantity of base shillings in circulation are not intrinsically worth fourpence; but if they are of sufficient weight, or what is admitted to be so by tacit consent, viz. two penny-weights and sixteen grains and a half, and do not present too *brazen* an appearance of their *felonious* origin, they are permitted to descend into the till, to prevent a total stagnation of trade. Even these shillings are rare, and their rarity is frequently disastrous to business.

After having been detained half an hour for change, I have more than once been told by the shop-keeper with great regret, that he had sent to all his neighbours for change, but could not obtain any, and consequently the article purchased resumed its former place upon the shelf. It is worthy of observation, that the mint shilling weighs three penny-weights and twenty one grains, so that even in *mere weight*, an Irish shop-keeper is compelled to submit to a deduction of rather more than one-third.

In some parts of Ireland, the people are so embarrassed by the immense effusion of the notes of small banks, that a premium of three-pence in the pound is frequently paid for an Irish bank note, although it is in all parts in a state of depreciation; and many of these bankers have been known to refuse their own notes in payment for rent, without a discount being allowed.

The man who goes to market in Dublin, with a guinea in gold, has an advantage to the extent of the premium over another going to market with a guinea in paper, for the former calls at a specie shop, and sells his guinea for a paper guinea and the premium. This *depreciation* must arise, I should suppose, from an *excessive issue of paper*, which in the time of the restriction upon the issue of gold, increased from £600,000 to £2,600,000, in addition to the vast augmentation of private bankers' notes in Dublin and other parts of Ireland. pp. 59 to 71. *passim.*

A lady at the inn where I was, assured me, that she had been detained a whole day in the country, because having no money, and no other than local notes, the keeper of the turnpike refused to let her pass. Notes for eighteen-pence are abundant. Bankers are almost as common as potatoes in the counties of Limerick, Kerry, and Cork. At a village not far from Limerick, a blacksmith issues sixpenny notes, which circulate in the village, and no farther. p. 348.

Let us now direct our attention to those indications of improvement, which appear in the disposition and character of this people; and in the state and cultivation of their country. We learn with great pleasure that duelling is fast declining. "It has," says Mr. C. "effected more injury to the Irish character than any other cause—it is subsiding; but truth calls upon me to say, that it still has too wide a latitude of action," p. 239. Also p. 241. "I found that duelling had very much subsided, and that it was far from raising those who engaged in it in the opinion of their brother officers. From one regiment, the officers of which I knew, an Irish officer was dismissed for quarrelling and challenging, and a resolution was entered into, that any gentleman of that regiment who accepted a challenge from such expelled officer, should be sent to Coventry by the whole mess."

Mr. C. also mentions, with great sensibility, various charitable institutions, in which the young of both sexes are instructed; some are established by individuals, who, greatly to their honour, *enjoy* this way of doing good; others are public, and recently opened: these *promise* much advantage. Our traveller repeatedly insists, that schools absolutely *gratuitous*, defeat their own intention, as the poor will not send their children; the "native pride" of the Irish "revolts at eleemosynary aid." Indeed, he goes so far, as to advise that, whatever may be projected on this article, the parent should always be understood to contribute *something* in part of payment. Mr. C. speaks with great severity of the charter-schools, calling them "most infamous jobs," p. 493. The present state of these, therefore, cannot be reckoned among indications of improvement; but they may be the basis of superior things at some future time; and the sooner the better.

A very favourable circumstance, more than once mentioned by our author is, the state of marriage among the Irish. "The low Irish," says he, "are not only remarkable for their early marriage, but for the inviolate sanctity with which the marriage contract is kept, and hence, among other causes, the number, and health of the children which are crowded

in every cabin," p. 405. This is an excellent sign: licentiousness is the inevitable road to ruin, but connubial fidelity encourages the hope that other virtues may be engrafted upon it, with great advantage.

Our traveller's gallantry leads him to speak highly of the Irish ladies: that he was favourably received by them, we learn from himself: and he thus returns the compliment.

The ladies of Ireland possess a peculiarly pleasing frankness of manners, and a vivacity in conversation, which renders highly interesting all they do and all they say. In this open sweetness of deportment, the libertine finds no encouragement; for their modesty must be the subject of remark and eulogy with every stranger. I have been speaking of the respectable class of female society, but the same virtue is to be found in the wretched mud cabin. The instances of connubial defection are fewer in Ireland, for its size, than in any other country of equal civilization. . . . .

They are more highly accomplished in instrumental than in vocal music: a greater musical treat, can scarcely be enjoyed, than to hear some of them perform their own Irish airs, which are singularly sweet, simple, and affecting, pp. 236, 238, *passim*. . . . . .

The modesty of the Irish ladies is the effect of principle. . . . . Instances of ladies "living and dying in single blessedness" are rare in Ireland. I saw only two old maids, and they were too amiable and pleasant not to convince me that their situation was their choice. The upper classes of Irish women are very handsome, and finely formed. The lower Irish country women are so disfigured by the smoke of their cabins, and their feet are so enlarged by being exposed without either shoes or stockings, that I think them inferior in complexion and form to the female peasantry of England. The commonest women in Dublin are, however, in general remarkable for delicacy of the hand, and the whiteness of the bosom. They are also in general powerfully made, and able to protect themselves.

The state of manufactures Mr C. thinks is improving: in some places agriculture is practised with increasing success and vigour, on scientific principles, p. 504. The effect of the Union, has been beneficial: but much greater effects are expected from it. "Since the Union the price of land has increased very considerably:" exhibitions of cattle have taken place; and other marks of *spirit* are not wanting. "The average price of labour is eight-pence per day; except in harvest time when it is double or trebled," p. 805. The rearing of cattle and sheep is, at present, the great *manufacture* of Ireland; hereafter, this country may produce other commodities, which, in their progress, may more actively employ its inhabitants.

We learn that, in the year 1801, there were but four mail coaches in Ireland, viz. to Cork, Limerick, Belfast, and Longford. now there are 304 post towns, to 200 of which the mails are conveyed six times a week, to 104 three times in each week, p. 85.

The roads of Ireland are excellent: "One great cause of the roads in Ireland enduring so long when once constructed, is owing to there being no ponderous waggons or other heavy carriages,—— the cars which are alone used for the conveyance of articles are too light, and their wheels too broad in proportion to do any injury." p. 211. We cannot help wishing that the general intercourse of the kingdom, may speedily prove fatal to the beauty of these roads.

Speaking of bogs, Mr. C. informs us, that,

The bog is cut with an instrument called a slane, a spade of about four inches broad, with a steel blade of the same length, standing at right angles with the edge of the spade: the turf is piled up in pyramidical heaps on the margin of the pits out of which they are dug, each piece being about the size and shape of a brick.

The mode of reclaiming bogs is now very well understood, and it is ascertained that bogs must be kept drained, otherwise they will relapse; it is a curious circumstance, that when they are once reclaimed, they are convertible to any purpose of agriculture. The bogs in Ireland are rapidly reclaiming. Nature is throwing off her covering of russet for a robe of green or yellow. I saw considerable tracts of bog that had been reclaimed, and which appeared to be very productive. The turf, when thoroughly heated, makes a good fire, and is an admirable substitute for coals. Page 310 311.

The last article which we shall quote, under this division, is, that of the Linen manufactures, the great staple of Ireland; concerning which Mr. C. writes that they

Are rapidly improving and extending in the north of Ireland. They have doubled within ten years: they have an immediate tendency to civilize and enlighten those who are employed in them, by producing an intercourse of the ignorant with the informed, and rendering a habit of calculation and negociation in bu-

siness indispensible; as they are at present conducted they are injurious to agriculture; but this arises solely from their being in a state of infancy. The manufacturers in the north, are all cottiers, who are scattered over the country, and they grow their own flax and potatoes; each of them generally has about half an Irish acre of corn, (oats) a rood of potatoes, and half a rood of flax, and a cow's grass, that is, permission for his cow to graze with the landlord's cattle, and turf-fuel sufficient for one fire: these people never attend to agriculture but when they have no demand for their manufacturing labour. As the linen manufactnres continue to increase, it will be found necessary for the petty manufacturers to aggregate in towns; from their present dispersion one advantage arises, the manufacturing cottier is more healthy than if he were shut up in a crowded working-room. Page 526 527.

Our judgment on the whole is, that Mr. C. has indulged himself in viewing this country to the greatest advantage; that he has collected a considerable mass of information, which, if it were not intermingled and debased by stale jokes, and old bulls, by lists of literati, specimens of literature, natural philosophy, and various other *augmentations*, would lay us under considerable obligations, to his attention and sagacity. Very few persons in the course of a summer's rapid excursion, could have told us so much; and not many would have told it better. Yet we could point out a few passages, which certainly required revision. They are either defective Irish currency, or English base-metal.

The aquatinta plates to this work are very pleasingly executed; they are mostly interesting by their subjects and their management. We *hope* they are faithful; but to the best of our recollection, we think them favourable. In this they do but agree with the general character of the book: the error, if it be one, is less likely to give offence than a contrary bias would have been.

In another part of our work, will be found the report of the Hibernian Society, instituted in London for the promotion of knowledge and piety in our sister Island. To this undertaking Mr. Carr heartily wishes success; and so will all who coincide in opinion with the royal sage, that "for the soul to be without knowledge is not good."

The British Flag Triumphant! or the Wooden Walls of Old England: being copies ot the London Gazettes, containing the accounts of the great Victories and gallant Exploits of the British Fleets, during the last and present War; together with correct lists of the Admirals and Captains in the several Engagements: to which is prefixed, an Address to the officers, seamen and marines, of His Majesty's Fleet. Hatchard, Piccadilly.

It has long been our opinion, that in certain manœuvres the French are greatly our superiors——nay, start not, gentle reader, —— we do not mean in manœuvring of fleets, or in fighting by single ships; but they take more advantage than we do, of the power of the press, to communicate to all the world what information they think will answer their purposes. They *reason* away our commerce, *prove* that we have very little, and ought to have less: they are never *defeated*, by our army; accidentally, to be sure, some irregular corps of their's are obliged to *take up a new position*; but that only demonstrates the skill of the general who takes it: and as to our navy, which we make so much noise about, there is not a well-built ship in it——except what France has furnished us with; by absolute inadvertence, or disobedience of orders, in it's commander. Such are French manœuvres: and though every day detects their fallacy, yet every day beholds the same deceptions repeated, in some shape or other, to be retailed among those nations, which groaning in chains and shackles under French despotism, are bound to believe whatever impositions their tyrants ordain.

By what can Britain counteract these delusions?—By employing the same medium, the press, in propagating TRUTH: let foreign nations read, each in its own language, the history of events; and learn to respect that power which stands, unappalled, though alone, in the attitude of self-defence; and desires that every state in Europe might be as free as herself.

We repeat our decided opinion, that the British government neither did, while the foreign presses were more free than they are at present, nor does now, do justice to its cause by means of this powerful

auxiliary: which Buonaparté converts, rather perverts, with much greater address, and very superior management, to accomplish his schemes. We do not indeed advise that every detachment of our army should carry with it a printing press to announce its own victories, as several French armies did; but surely there is a medium between vain glorious boasting and supine indifference.

If such be our conviction, we cannot but be pleased with every endeavour to engage the press in the service of our country, and among other instances, we are gratified by the intention of the present compilation, which is addressed immediately to the hearts of our seamen, and presents them with official reports of those incomparable actions, to the truth of which many thousands of them can testify. Not one in fifty of our sailors, says the worthy editor, has the means of reading these public papers; yet it must be acknowledged, that the sentiments entertained by our compatriots, respecting our public deportment, are extremely likely to affect our future conduct.

The same sentiments, as to honour and renown, which animate the breast of the officer, are felt in their full vigour by our soldiers and sailors: and if it were possible, that the guilt of cowardice could be proved on an individual, the reception he would meet with among his mates, must be worse to him than a thousand deaths. It follows, that this sensibility of spirit should be cherished, and directed to the most beneficial purposes, on behalf of the nation; with which, at the present moment, the idea *will* connect itself, of the support of humanity, and of general liberty. It is proper that the crews of our men of war should know what their country says of them, and not be left to the slightest suspicion that they are serving ungrateful compatriots. It is proper, also, that they should be informed of the exploits of others; partly, to excite emulation in those who have not yet distinguished themselves; partly that each may congratulate others on their respective successes, and thereby augment each others felicity; and, we may be allowed to add, that none may plume themselves too much on their good fortune, since they may see in others no less valour or skill, or determinate perseverance in duty than in themselves.

If moralists are right in their opinion that it is more difficult to bear prosperity with moderation than to bear adversity, our hint will not be thought misplaced, and the same proposition will add peculiar propriety to the religious advice in the address which opens the work before us. It is too common to think of religion only under suffering: strange infatuation! for when the body is in pain, and the mind sympathizing with it, distracted by solicitude, or anguish, anxiously seeking relief, and adverting to every appearance, or probability, for or against;—how can a sett of ideas totally new be engrafted on the reasonable principle of man? That religion can soothe and comfort, is true: but this is a degradingly partial view of religion. Her power extends to controul and conduct: and be it remembered, that the person who amidst the flow of animal spirits, the exuberance of health, or the intoxication of success, is calmed, moderated, guided, and finds in religion a *sedative*, gives no less proof of her power on his mind, than the wretch who under torture of body experiences the consolating influence of the same heavenly principle. We perfectly agree, therefore, with the language of the worthy editor:

Be not ashamed, my countrymen, of shewing that you thus fear God; and be it ever your boast to acknowledge that "the victory "was not obtained by your own sword, neither was it your own arm that saved you." If there be any one man to whom religion is more necessary at all times than it is to another, a sailor is that man. His life is always in God's hands; always liable to be taken from him by ways to which landsmen are not exposed: therefore should he not forget God. True religion never appears to more advantage than in that character; the fear of God is, in his ease, peculiarly attractive, and of peculiar use; because, he who fears God, as he ought to do, will never fear the face of man. *True courage, therefore, is ever founded in true religion.* If Christian warriors do not feel these sentiments, and act up to them, a heathen commander shall rise up in the day of judgment, and condemn them; for he declares "that a soldier, *who first serves God, and "then obeys his captain*, may confidently "hope to overcome his enemy.*" Therefore, listen to this illustrious heathen, and then turn to the more sure word of Divine Revelation, and learn from thence, "when "your hosts go forth against the enemy, to "keep yourselves from every wicked thing.†"

* Xenophon. † Deuteron. xxiii. v. 9.

Whither, indeed, shall we look for true genuine piety, if not among those "who go "down to the sea in ships, and who occupy "their business in great waters, who see the "works of the Lord, and his wonders in the "deep?"

If those who are the constant objects of his power, and of his goodness, are not always ready to exclaim from the bottom of their hearts, and in the sincerity of their souls. "O, that men would therefore praise the "Lord for his goodness, and declare the "wonders that he doeth for the children of "men‡;" where, shall we find religious gratitude upon earth?

This address also commemorates the names of Howe, Duncan, Collingwood, Strachan, and others: and repeats several of their sentiments with energy and effect. In particular, as might be expected, it venerates the memory of Nelson; and as every instance of piety in that great man is peculiarly interesting, we extract, with pleasure, a communication for which the editor is indebted to the condescension of the Earl of Nelson. It is an entry in that Hero's diary, October 21, 1805:—that memorable day!

"At the day light saw the enemy's com-"bined fleet from E. to E. S. E.—bore away "—made the signal for order of sailing, and "to prepare for battle, the enemy with their "heads to the southward—at seven the "enemy wearing in succession.

"May the great God, whom I worship, "grant to my Country, and to the benefit of "Europe in general, a great and glorious "Victory!—and may no misconduct in any "one tarnish it!—and may Humanity, "after Victory, be the predominant feature "in the character of the British Fleet! "For myself, individually, I commit my "life to Him who made me, and may His "blessings light upon my endeavours for "serving my King and my Country faith-"fully! To him I resign myself, and the "just cause which is entrusted to me to "defend.——Amen, Amen, Amen!"

The contents of this work are, the Gazette accounts of Lord Howe's victory, June 1, 1794, with the order of battle, &c. number of guns, and men, &c.—— Admiral Cornwallis's retreat, June, 19, 1795. Lord Bridport's action, June 23. Lord St. Vincent's February 16, 1797. Lord Duncan's, October 13. Lord Nelson's at the Nile, August 2, 1798. Sir Sidney Smith's discomfiture of Buonaparté at Acre, March and May, 1799. Lord Nelson's off Copenhagen, April 3, 1801. Sir J. Saumarez's, July 13. Lord Nelson's off Trafalgar, October 21, 1805. Admiral Strachan's Nov. 4. Admiral Duckworth's at St Domingo, February 7, 1806. It concludes with an account of the public funeral of Lord Nelson.

This compilation was printed with the intention of distributing 50,000 copies among our seamen. The idea is excellent: such books, with others of devotion, and circumspect cheerfulness, are truly patriotic donations.

Substance of the Debates on the Revolution for the Abolition of the Slave Trade; which was moved in the House of Commons, June 10, 1806, and in the House of Lords, June 24, 1806, With an appendix containing notes and illustrations. Crown 8vo. pp. 216. Price 1s. 6d. Phillips and Fardon. London, 1806.

This little volume contains, as it professes to do, the *substance* of the debates on a question in which humanity has been, and continues to be, peculiarly interested. We are aware that the book is published by friends to the abolition; yet we believe it is not chargeable with partiality to the arguments of its patrons, or injustice to those of its opponents.

As we consider the question of the existence of the Slave Trade as disposed of, and likely to give little further trouble, if any, we shall not enlarge on the subject: but merely state that the motion made by the Rt. Hon. C. J. Fox, was, "That this House, considering the African Slave Trade to be contrary to the principles of justice, humanity, and sound policy, will, with all practicable expedition, take effectual measures for the abolition of the said trade, in such manner, and at such a period, as may be deemed adviseable."

This resolution was carried: Ayes 114, Noes 15—Majority 99.

In the House of Lords, the agreement of the House to the Resolution of the Commons, was moved by Lord Grenville.

The resolution was carried: Contents 41, Not Contents 20—Majority 21.

The notes and illustrations are instances of cruelty, &c. practiced in this trade.

‡ Psalm cvii. v. 23, 24, 25, 29, 31.

An Inquiry into the requisite Cultivation, and present State of the Arts of Design in England. By Prince Hoare. Demy 12mo. pp. 293. Price 7s. boards, Phillips, London, 1806.

It is well for the public and for science itself that pretensions of profesional men are subject to revision by an unbiassed judicature, which, instead of granting without exception what the votaries of art solicit, calmly considers, nor admits without deliberation, those demands which every artist makes in favour of his occupation. When any art or science whatever is in question, the professor who does not *over value* it, stands little chance of rising to eminence: that same enthusiasm which prompts him to this, is necessary to urge his course in despite of a thousand difficulties, to support him against mortifications and failures without number, under which less ardent and determined minds would sink. The critic who judges for the public must place himself, as nearly as his imagination can effect, in the situation of that public; must silence the prejudices of education or of habit, must subdue every partiality however powerful, and must consider, equitably, the claims of every art, science, profession, or employment, that he may do justice to all, by not allowing undue preponderance to any.

But it is not always that the critic, notwithstanding his sense of duty, and endeavours to discharge his office with equity, *can* divest himself of those recollections which occupy his memory: a sense of former gratifications will influence his present feelings, and what was a source of delight to him in former times will revive again and again on his mind, and bias his sensibility, even in spite of himself.

We acknowledge our predilection for the polite arts, which form the subject of the work before us: they have yielded us so many pleasures, and we recollect our enjoyments derived from them with so much zest, that we find the review of this book rather a dangerous undertaking. We are in the condition of a fort assailed by an enemy, when part of the garrison has no great desire to defend the place to extremities: and when the commander is aware that he cannot ensure entirely, against desertion. Under these circumstances let us see what Articles of Capitulation our adversary has sent in by his trumpet, for our consideration, and answer. *Memorandum.* Not to let him know the state of the garrison till the articles are signed.

Art. I. *The fine arts are important to the fame of a nation.*— Agreed: but the inference of the happy state of social life in a country adorned by the dominion of the arts, as described by Thucydides, is no logical deduction.

Art. II. *The cultivation of public taste has a favourable influence on the morals of a people.*— Agreed: when taste is cultivated in high degrees. But, as experience justifies the belief that for every *one* who rises to eminence, an hundred blockheads, at least, will rush into the profession, and these must live by their talents, such as they are, the chance is, that the attempt to cultivate the public taste may produce evils of no light effect on the morals of a people.

Art. III. *Public authority should patronize the arts.*— Agreed: and within the last thirty years the patronage of the arts by public authority in this kingdom, has been superior to whatever it had been at any period of our history.

Art. IV. *Religion should call in the arts to her assistance.*— Refused: because, 1. The arts have never yet shewn themselves worthy of being so honoured; having told many more lies than truths, whenever they have been so employed. 2. Religion is conversant with mental not corporeal objects; with celestial not terrestial principles; with matters of faith not of sight: whereas, the arts are conversant with corporeal objects solely, with terrestrial principles solely, with matters of sight solely: and whenever they have attempted spiritual subjects they have blundered most *confoundingly*. N. B. Decent ornaments, or modest decorations not included in this refusal,

Art. V. *Manufactures should call in the arts to their assistance.*— Agreed: the arts are capable of conferring essential benefits on manufactures of every kind: but on some kinds especially, and on those which require an application of the principles of elegance and taste, principally: these are now very numerous and very important to this nation. In fact, it is since the arts were requested to assist in these productions that British manufactures have risen in value, in a manner altogether unprecedented, and those of other nations

have lost that exclusive preference which formerly they boasted.

ART. VI. *The commemorative power of the arts should be called into exercise; and monuments erected to our great men.* — Agreed: without reserve. But, referred to future discussion, whether this object would best be obtained by placing these performances in "a gallery of Bri-"tish honour," as Mr. H. proposes, or by decorating with them those of our public buildings which are most frequented. Our present opinion is that according to their subjects, some should meet us in the Bank, others in the Royal Exchange, or the India House, others at the Navy Office, &c. Beside which, the British Institution is itself a gallery, for whatever is of a temporary nature; and would acquire popularity by being made the place of exhibition for whatever was going abroad, previous to its departure. Is there a possibility of preventing any institution in Britain from losing its pristine vigour, and becoming a *job?*

Mr. Hoare's principal effort in favour of the fine arts is contained in the former part of his volume, and his propositions are before the reader. We had rather wave the consideration of his concluding observations: The Royal Academy has not accomplished all which some expected from it: but the causes of this failure, we wish not to investigate. No present repinings can recall the dead. The Secretary for foreign affairs to this institution is in some degree retained in its favour; yet he points out various defects in it, and should a disposition for amendment shew itself, would doubtless mention others. As to the capabilities of English artists to attain excellence, the very question, as implying doubt, is a libel on our country: and not worthy of serious refutation—it deserves only to be scouted. Every amateur of the fine arts will thankfully commend Mr. H. for the task he has executed, and for his handsome manner of executing it.

Views of Picturesque Cottages, with Plans, selected from a Collection of Drawings, taken in different parts of England, and intended as Hints for the Improvement of Village Scenery. By William Atkinson, Architect. Royal quarto. Plates 13, pp. 29. Price £1. 1s. in boards, £1. 15s. coloured. London, Gardiner, 1805.

"THOSE Gentlemen," says the author, "who expend so many thousands in improving the landscape of their parks, ought never to overlook the adjoining cottage, or to neglect the neighbouring village; for by introducing improvement into these objects, they may add to their pleasure, by producing the most picturesque scenery; and at the same time, add to the comfort and happiness of their fellow creatures." This observation is perfectly true, and there is equal humanity and policy, in adopting it, and calling into exercise the principle on which it is founded. There is, however, some dexterity necessary in managing such undertakings. Many works have appeared on this subject, the examples proposed in which have been planned in the closet, by very ingenious men, but are not derived from actual observation, or from intimate acquaintance with the most satisfactory models of the class of edifices in question.

We are very far from disapproving of such mental conceptions: but, we think the author before us has rendered an essential service to this department of architecture, by directing attention to cottages already built; from among which might be selected those combining the greatest number of conveniencies, at the smallest expense of erection. A happy position of the chimney, of the windows, and of the entrance door, has often rendered one cottage more comfortable than its neighbours; while many a dwelling is justly described as cold and barely habitable, merely for want of such fortunate *adjustments* to the locality of its situation: when, possibly, a mere reversion of the plan on which it is built would have prevented all cause of complaint.

This idea may be pursued still further: as, to the best dimensions, and forms, for the various parts of a cottage; the door, windows, fire place, &c. parts which do not correspond implicitly with any presupposed regulations, but might be inferred from the results of general inquiries. Different aspects, and elevations require different management; *e. gr.* the top of a hill, the side of a hill, the level plain, the valley, &c.

In our opinion internal convenience is perfectly reconcilable with picturesque effect; and that architect deserves best of his country who most intimately unites

these principles; indeed, the *duty* of this union should always be felt by the builder for the poor.

The work before us, does not fully meet our ideas on this subject: the thought is better than the execution: but the same artist who has suggested the thought, though he has, in this instance, had the notion of picturesque effect somewhat too strongly in his mind, may, on a future occasion, adopt the hints we have dropped, and meet our unqualified approbation.

The work presents, in the first place, a slight dissertation, on the situation, outline, effect of light and shade, character, &c. of a cottage: the materials of which cottages are composed, their tone of colour, &c. so far as the eye is concerned. The plates comprise twelve views, and ten plans. The last contains four windows, at large. They are executed in aqnatinta: but are deficient in spirit.

Etchings, representing Fragments of Antique Grecian and Roman Architectural Ornaments; chiefly collected in Italy, before the Revolution in that Country, and Drawn from the Originals. By Charles Heathcote Tatham, Architect. Imperial folio. Plates 24, price £1 5s. Gardiner, London, 1806.

In the year 1803, Mr. Tatham published a considerable work, price £4 4s. intended, as his preface informs us, to "present the public with an accurate delineation of some of the best specimens of ancient ornamental architecture, which till of late were preserved in Rome, and other parts of Italy." This appeared peculiarly necessary to our artist, as the originals are now dispersed over the continent; and students may hereafter find it difficult, if not impossible, to inspect them.

The object of this publication is the same as that of the former—"to furnish the artist with approved models, on which he may exercise his genius." To speak our minds freely on these fragments, we must confess that many of them do not appear to us to be models of the beautiful: what effect they might have in composition with others, and in their perfect state, we cannot pretend to determine; but, as fragments, had they come to us unpublished, we should have left them unpublished still. Not that this opinion applies to every example in the collection: some are pretty enough, yet not superior to those communicated in Mr. T.'s first work. We think, too, that a more correct and spirited point in the execution of the plates, would have done them more justice, than they have now received. The last plate represents the grand vase of Parian marble, at Woburn Abbey.

Designs for Ornamental Plate, many of which have been executed in Silver, from Original Drawings. By Charles Heathcote Tatham, Architect. Imperial folio, plates 40. Price £1 11s. 6d. Gardiner, London, 1806.

We approve very highly of Mr. Tatham's direction of his talents to this branch of art, let who will "consider it as foreign to his present more important engagements." Merit does not lose its character by attention to a line different from what has previously engaged it: on the contrary, the man who can not only plan and build a mansion, but compose the ornaments, and the furniture, intended to decorate it, combines a skill and science which are justly entitled to reiterated applause.

Nevertheless, we hope and believe, that Mr. T. is too severe on the state of art among the silversmiths, when he says, "light and insignificant forms have prevailed, *to the utter exclusion of all good ornament whatever*." We are not concerned to vindicate the workmen in this branch; but we suppose, that light and elegant forms, as contra-distinguished from "*Massiveness*," which Mr. T. recommends, may be as proper in some places, and on some occasions, as massiveness itself, may be in other places and on other occasions. Whoever attempts to exclude any principle of ornament, from its due place, by substituting another, does not in effect advance the art beyond the state in which he found it. A sense of propriety is the best discriminator of character; and this allows scope to every exertion and style of art, without suffering any one to trespass on the proper province of another.

The observation of our author that chasing is a branch of sculpture, is perfectly just; it was formerly very fashionable among us; but the caprices of fashion are so numerous and irregular, that artists whose living depends on complying

with them, are not to be blamed if a conscious feeling of somewhat like slavery, induces them to abandon the service of so fickle a patroness. Hence good chasers are scarce. The toil and assiduity required by the art have been ill rewarded; and we hardly know how to advise young artists, whatever Mr. T.'s encouragements may be, to engage in this business on vague expectations of support.

The subjects of this Volume being given in outlines only, lose considerably in their dignity, and the brilliancy of their effect; nevertheless, we like some of them very well; they are truly handsome; and no doubt, we should, without hesitation, have admired others, had we seen them when executed as plate.

We cannot, however, confer our approbation on those monstrous combinations of figures, which were current among the ancients, when profusely introduced as essentials in the elegancies of modern life. The ancients had good reasons for retaining them: they were religious emblems; they were symbols of the original country which the western nations had quitted; but what is that to us? —are we intent on commemorating the primary seat of mankind, in adopting them? They contribute nothing to gracefulness of form: for, in fact, what grace can there be in the combination of a beautiful woman's head and bosom (without any body) spread by the expanded wings of an eagle, at the shoulders; and supported by a *single* leg of a lion? Is not this very like that unnatural conjunction which Horace so properly ridicules in the opening of his Art of Poetry? We too may say with him,

——————*vanæ*
Fingentur species; ut nec pes nec caput uni
Reddatur formæ.

In fact, we never see these ill assorted forms without thinking of the Harpies. How can we praise the elevation of the female head and bosom, on the spindle shanks of a Jerboa; or a lion's head, with the lappets of an Egyptian priest's head-dress, falling on each side, the body encased in a flower, the legs strutting as supports? Surely Nature furnishes appropriate forms enough without creating monsters; and the selection of *these* is the true test of skill in an artist. The gracefully bending foliage is capable of every form that can be desired, of every inrichment that true taste can approve; if additional novelty must be had let us nevertheless keep to nature, and banish from our tables, and from our apartments, those wretched subterfuges, not of art, but of artists,

Gorgons and hydras, and chimeras dire.

A few short and cursory Remarks on the present State of the Army. 8vo. pp. 55, price 2s. 6d. Egerton, London, 1806.

These remarks are given as the production of an officer, and they have some internal marks of that origin. We wish that the members of every profession would state, with equal candour, those circumstances which in their estimation and experience have either the appearance or the effect of hardship: for we know well that government cannot enter minutely into the feelings of any rank, the numbers of which are so considerable as those of the officers of the army. Such statements, therefore, might sometimes elucidate to our superiors the real situation of their dependants; and if founded in reason, might procure redress, or, if unjust, might produce efficient answers. The members of all professions have analogous complaints to make; witness the clergy, the law, medicine, and literature, generally; what are the emoluments of their early years? do they amount to a maintenance? We can assure this officer that the case of his brethren is by no means singular.

The first chapter of this work, on the recruiting of the army, is wholly superseded by late enactments of the ruling powers; their effect remains to be decided by experience. We do not like our officer's suggestion of marking soldiers on the shoulders with gunpowder: only flagrant deserters should suffer this stigma.

The second chapter is on drills: the observations are not very important, neither are those on the perfect uniformity of clothing throughout the army: the essential characters of a soldier are obedience, adroitness and courage; attention to lesser matters, involves ideas rather of the parade than of the army. Nevertheless, we shall insert the writer's hints on leggings and caps; the latter we think might be adopted with considerable advantage.

The leggings of the soldier, it is conceived, might be made of leather; a long march is

sure of completely destroying the soldiers' cloth legging, which even for common garrison duties is of too slight a texture to answer the soldier's pocket; more particularly, making them come up well over the cap of the knee, to preserve the breeches at the kneeling charge, and to keep them up, there might be some sort of buckle or strap, which might possibly, whilst serving the purpose, be made ornamental to the whole.

The caps of the men might be much improved, the peak in front is not sufficiently broad to protect them from the glare of the sun. It would not require much ingenuity to make them also in such manner, that the sides and back of leather, might be looped up, the back to be let down in cases of hard rain, to protect the neck and shoulders; the sides might likewise be used for the same intent, and the whole be a comfortable covering for the head at inclement seasons.

Certainly our officer is right to survey a soldier as a soldier, but why neglect him, as a man? or why forego the idea of morals, or even of religon? Would they do any real injury to the service? We are of opinion, that profligacy ruins more soldiers than poverty pinches; that licentiousness cuts up dicipline by the roots; and that however a commander may think it "a great object to check the marriage of soldiers *on every occasion*;" yet that philanthropic minds and well-wishers to their country, would justly abhor such "checks." Can that station of life be lawful, which exacts a perpetual opposition to the very course of nature, the very constitution of its subjects, and the appointment of Providence itself? In several propositions, however, we agree with our author: such as, his wishes for nitrous fumigations, for more convenient accommodations *where practicable*, when at sea: for the promptitude of courts martial, and punishments on delinquents; we add, for reward to merit in every rank, and on every occasion. We too wish it were practicable to ascertain, "previous to a young man's getting a commission, how far he was eligible for such a situation." As youth are often hurried away by their headstrong passions, and deluded by the tinsel of appearance, such examinations might be reciprocally beneficial:—But, if all were done which prudence might suggest as proper to be done, how should we ever raise an army of 100,000 men?—— Perhaps on this subject, silence is duty, considering the times and circumstances in which our lot is cast.

Comforts of Human Life; or, Smiles and Laughter of Charles Chearful and Martin Merryfellow. In seven dialogues. 18mo. pp. 220. Price 6s. Oddy. London, 1806.

Mr. Beresford's "Miseries of Human Life" (Vide Panorama, page 297), was a book not likely to want imitators:—— some of which would naturally follow in the path he had taken; others would prefer those paths which afforded different views of the scenery around them.

Among those whom Mr. Beresford's example and success have set to writing, is the author of these "Comforts." He thinks that Mr. Beresford has too much the air of being in earnest, as to the ills of life; he regards that author's book, as containing somewhat too much of woes too serious to be laughed at; and he discovers more of melancholy than of wit in it. To counteract what he thinks evils, he offers us his Comforts, and to say truth, the natural companion to a book of "Miseries" should be a book of "Comforts." These Anti-Hypocondriacs are in seven dialogues, reviewing the principal departments of human business and amusement. Their details of particulars are far from being so numerous and minute, as those of the "Miseries."

The first dialogue opens with the portraits of Testy and Sensitive, the two Dramatis Personæ of the "Miseries."

Merryfellow. Ha! whom have we here? Peevish and Deplorable, arm in arm? The very phizzes of unappeasable Discontent and sneaking Despondency close together, like those of Philip and Mary on a shilling! Did you ever before see two such figures, Chearful? That meagre person, that withered brow, those ferret eyes, those cheeks shrivelled as a bit of parchment forsaking the paste-board on the cover of an old book, that short peaked nose, that pursed, pouting mouth, bespeak a mind that has deformed and worn out the frame it animates, by incessant toil, to extract from every subject of thought, continual matter of dissatisfaction! To what a mixed expression of sourness and affected wisdom he twists his features!

Chearful. But how rueful the look of his companion! What a sunken eye! What a droop of the chin! What a lifeless stoop in the shoulders! With what languid, painful

effort he drags his legs! He starts at that fly alighting on his hand, as if its touch were the bite of a scorpion! His comrade seems to inthral him with the power of an evil genius. He shrinks from every grasp of the other,—and shudders at his every word,—yet still cleaves to him.

. . . . . .

Sen But "the torment of *gravel in the boot*, which you have endured till it becomes absolutely intolerable!"

Merry. 'Tis nothing. Take off your boot. Use your hands——

"Hi motus animorum, et hæc certamina tanta,
"*Exigui jactu pulveris*, compressa, quiescent."

The pleasure of finding that one can so easily rid one's self of such an annoyance, much more than compensates for the slight uneasiness it has given.

. . . . . .

Merry. What? call you it a misery "to "slip and fall in a ludicrous posture in "skaiting?"—This is the best amusement of the sport. It excites more merriment than if one should run ten miles without a fall. It makes those around laugh so heartily, that the person who falls cannot but laugh himself fall as merrily as any one among them. Look at boys amidst their diversions—the merriment comes chiefly from the tricks, ludicrous accidents, and surprises, such as your fall on the ice, which happens as the game proceeds.

In the above, and in many others, this writer has taken Mr. B's "Miseries," for the text of his reply. The following is our author's last Comfort.

When Jove had bestowed on man every blessing which nature presents; and was returning to Heaven:—he cast one look back upon his new-born favourite. It seemed to his tenderness, that something more might be bestowed.—He gave him, to crown the whole, the power of laughter, and the sense of the ridiculous!

We never expect that "Second Parts," should equal the First Part, of any work of imagination; nor that imitators should surpass their originals: the first pressure of the grapes makes the best wine; and whoever adopts the thought of another, is like him who adopts another man's child, he can treat it with a secondary affection only; there are a thousand little delicacies apparent to the real father, which pass unnoticed by the foster-parent; and yet, attention to these delicacies is necessary, if the offspring is to be reared to virtuous maturity.

We understand that half a dozen pens are employed in drawing up—Miseries *vice* Comforts; and—the Dilemmas *vice* the Delights of Life. By the labours of both parties, it is to be hoped, that before we quit it, we shall be able to attain a tolerably just estimate of this transitory state.

Œuvres de Louis XIV: The Works of Louis XIV, &c. (Resumed from page 493.)

We attempted in our last number to pourtray the general spirit of the connections between Louis XIV. and Charles II., and we gave, in Louis's own words, the hitherto unknown details of the *two* first transactions between these monarchs. We are induced to draw now from the same source, some very curious particulars of the war which ended in the peace of Breda. Besides the novelty in the mode of negociation then adopted by Louis, it will be proved by his own testimony, that his intrigues with the English factions as well as his baneful influence over Charles, date from a much earlier period than has been suspected.

The death of the King of Spain * and the war between the English and the United States, which happened nearly at the same time, afforded me at once two glorious opportunities of trying my arms; one against the Spaniards, for the rights accruing to the Queen, by the death of the King her father; the other against the English, in defence of the States of Holland, according to the treaty I had lately made with them.

The King of Great Britain supplied me, indeed, with a tolerable pretence to get rid of this last quarrel, by affirming that the Dutch were the aggressors; and that I was bound to assist them only in case they were attacked, and though on the other hand, the Dutch did their utmost to prove the contrary, yet it is certain, that they never would have been able to convince me, had I pleased to affect any degree of doubt.

But though it was much to my interest to seize such a fair opportunity of remaining neutral, yet I could not help acting *honestly* according to the knowledge I had of the aggression on the side of England.

I, however delayed declaring myself, to try to conciliate matters; but seeing my intervention ineffectual, and fearing lest the two parties should come to an understanding at my expense, I, at last, took openly that part,

* Philip IV. deceased September 17, 1665.

I was bound to take. But it remained for me to determine whether I should at the same time engage in a double war against England, and Spain, for my own interests and those of my allies; or, whether I should only at that time take up the quarrel of Holland, waiting for a more favourable opportunity to terminate my own.

Here Louis details the various considerations which might have decided him; nothing, he owns, could have urged him to undertake that double war, but the prospect of glory which the perilous undertaking offered; and this was balanced by the fear of closely connecting the Spaniards with the English; and of seeing thereby these *islanders* obtain an establishment on the Continent; *from which it would have been a hard matter to drive them.* He saw on the other hand, that his quarrel with England was not likely to be pushed to any great extremities; and that, under the cover of such a mock war, he might, without much suspicion, make the necessary preparations for his intended breach with Spain; these he accordingly set about with much industry, and when they were in some forwardness, he began to think it was time to act *honestly* by his allies.

Nothing now remained for me to do, says Louis XIV. Before I began the war, but to contrive how to declare it; for, as I was all along determined, to put an end to it as soon as possible, I was glad to act towards the King of England with as much courtesy as possible; and the best way I could hit upon, was to get the intelligence conveyed to him, in the form of a compliment, through the means of the Queen his mother, who then was in Paris. I therefore requested of her, simply to let him know that the peculiar esteem I had for him, made it excessively painful to me, to be compelled by my engagements to come to this resolution; and this appeared to her so very polite, that she not only promised to let him know, but also thought he ought to be obliged to me for it.

And indeed, I may say that this language was perfectly consonant with my feelings, for I really always had a most *particular regard* for the King of Great Britain, as I am also convinced that, in the beginning of this war, he, on his side, had been urged by the voice of the people, much farther than he would have gone, had he only consulted his own inclination.

As long as advantages were pretty well balanced between England and Holland, Louis was satisfied with making empty demonstrations of warlike activity, and appeared more in reality as a pleased spectator than as an ally; but when a brilliant naval victory had given the English a decided superiority, he then thought it high time to check their progress. The means he devised we shall give in his own words, requesting our readers to recollect *the particular regard* he professed for Charles II.

While this event [the naval victory] seemed to preclude the possibility of our effecting a junction, I was on my side seeking some secret means to weaken the English. On one hand I kept intelligence with the remains of Cromwell's faction, in hopes to excite some new troubles in London, through their means; and on the other, I was practising on the Irish catholics, who being always highly dissatisfied with their situation, seemed also always ready to make some attempt to better it.

In these ideas I listened to the propositions made to me by Sidney,* an English gentleman, who offered to excite an insurrection in a short time, if I would let him have 100,000 crowns (from the then value of money, about £30,000). But I thought this sum rather too considerable to be thus advanced on the promises of a fugitive, unless I could see some previous dispositions towards their accomplishment: I therefore offered him 20,000 crowns, only, ready money, pledging myself to send the insurgents such assistance, as they should need, so soon as they would be likely to avail themselves of it successfully.

In the midst of all these intrigues, Louis was ardently wishing for that peace which was to forward his ambitious views. A negociation opened for that purpose at the Queen of England's (Henrietta) house in Paris had failed. In the mean time, Rouvigny a man of considerable merit, and connected with the first English families, had, by order of the French King, kept a constant intercourse with Lord St. Albans, who was in London at the head of a party desirous of peace. The motive of Lord St. Albans was, the wish of seeing the Queen dowager of England, whom Louis broadly calls his mistress, though it should seem he was privately married to her. At last both parties being pretty

* This was the famous Algernon Sidney. It appears by a letter from Colbert de Croissi to Louis, that he was still in Paris in 1700. These early connections of Louis XIV with the English actions, have escaped Dalrymple; who places the beginning of them later; probably even this is not their commencement.

well tired of the contest, the French King saw the wished-for moment arrive. His views will be best detailed in his own words.

In the treaty I was wishing to make with England, the point on which I demurred most, was the restitution of the West India islands, which I had taken during the war; for I knew that the English, grieved at this loss, insisted above all things, on their restoration; and besides the general interest of France in keeping them, I was, moreover, to consider that of the new Company I had created to carry on that commerce.

But, on the other side, considering the circumstances in which I was placed, seeing Flanders destitute both of men and money, Spain governed by a foreign princess, the Emperor wavering in his resolutions, the House of Austria reduced to two heads, its forces wasted by various wars, and forsaken by almost all its friends, while my subjects were glowing with zeal for my service; I thought I should not lose such a favourable opportunity of forwarding my designs, nor put the possession of those distant islands in comparison with the conquest of the Low Countries. I accordingly resolved within myself, to grant the demand which had been made: but in order to draw some important advantages from the concession, I sent to ask the King of Great Britain, if on my privately giving him my word, that I would allow this to be an article of the treaty, he would also promise on his side not to enter into any engagements against me for a year. . . . . Meanwhile the agents of the belligerent powers being assembled at Breda, began publicly to treat of peace, and I continued the secret negociation I had already opened, to make sure, as soon as possible, of what concerned my farther views; for as I did not doubt, that from the various interests of the different parties, contests would daily arise, which would delay the conclusion of affairs, I thought I was much interested in extricating myself from it, to make the most of a time which was precious to me.

To prevent any knowledge of this convention from reaching the States of Holland, it was only expressed in private letters, in my own hand writing, and in that of the King of England, to the Queen Dowager, his mother and my aunt, who kept them in trust for us both; and this done, I began openly to prepare for the war in Flanders.

Such was the first step towards that iniquitous system of crooked politics by which Louis XIV. rendered Charles II. subservient to his designs of ruining the Dutch, and dismembering the monarchy of Spain. This secret convention between the two kings, and the means by which it was effected, have been equally unknown to all political writers; Dalrymple himself dates the beginning of their secret connections only from the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. While the ostensible negociations were carrying on at Breda, Louis, sure of the neutrality of England, was making rapid progress in Flanders. Peace was signed nevertheless; but the Dutch, justly alarmed, attempted to form a league against the French king, in which Charles was solicited to join.

Charles II., and the Dutch, were not the only victims of Louis's political artifices; nor was the English court the only one in which he had obtained such an ascendancy. His influence was equally great, at times, in Vienna, by means of the jesuits and of money; in Warsaw, Turin, and Lisbon, by means of the Queens; in Stockholm by his subsidies; and in many courts of Germany, by the intrigues of the Count and the Cardinal of Furstemberg, who were his creatures. Nor can it be doubted that this system originated with himself: he claims, in his writings, many of these diplomatic *tricks* as his own invention, to which his ministers were not even privy. During his long reign, the changes in his councils did not occasion any in his politics, and whatever blame or credit they deserve must undoubtedly be attributed to him. No one understood better than Louis the management of foreign affairs; never losing sight of his object in the maze of negociations, as he proved in respect to Flanders, which he justly looked upon as the only barrier of Europe against him. He knew how to avail himself of the virtues, the vices, the foibles, and the passions, of those he had to deal with; and we should praise his abilities, if the fatal consequences of this lawless system could leave room for any other sentiment than that of detestation. From him, statesmen have learned to dispose of dominions, under the form of partitions, exchanges, cessions, or indemnities, without any other consideration than the convenience of the strongest, without any attention to the right of the weakest, and often without even consulting the parties interested. To this system, followed for near a century, the present state of Europe is in a great measure to be attributed. No final

settlement in the demarcation of empires can possibly be expected, while changes depend on the whim of the strongest, without any other rule or guide but the coloured windings of a map; while public right is only a branch of geography, and diplomacy is a mere science of curiosity, a kind of dead language, fit for the learned, rather than for negociators.

Of Louis's unprincipled political bargains, the first in magnitude is certainly the treaty which partitioned Spain, during the life of its sovereign. We shall give an abridged account of this transaction. Torcy hardly notices it in his Memoirs, Bolingbroke only mentions it as known to him, like Henault and Mably. Voltaire is the first who gave any details on this head, but these are insufficient and inaccurate, as is too often the case with that lively writer. The document from which we draw our information, is annexed to the collection before us, it forms a part of a secret history of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, composed by Mr. Saint-Pret, keeper of the archives of the foreign department, in France; a manuscript copy of which, made in 1731 by Mr. le Dran, first clerk to this establishment, is in the hands of the editors.

October 20, 1667, Mr. Wicka, the Emperor's ambassador at the court of France, gave a grand dinner, to celebrate the birth of a prince, son of his master. Thither Louis sent the Landgrave William of Furstenberg, to be the first to propose the health of the Emperor. During the entertainment, Mr. Wicka told the Landgrave that the court of Vienna would now listen more willingly to the proposition of an eventual treaty, than it had done before. This was enough to induce Lionne (the French minister for foreign affairs) to dispatch immediately a courier to M. Gremonville, the French ambassador at Vienna, with instructions to discover, if possible, whether such really was the intentions of the Emperor, and to say, in that case, that if the two courts could agree in this important point, the French king would willingly make peace, at present, with the Spaniards; reserving only what he had conquered in Flanders in the last campaign. Gremonville lost no time in tampering with the Emperor's ministers; he first saw Prince Lobkowitz, who denied that Mr. Wicka had been authorised in what he had said, but appeared much in favour of the project; doubting however Louis's sincerity. He meanwhile referred Mr. Gremonville to Prince Aversberg, as likely to have more weight with the Emperor. This minister, like his colleague, had his doubts as to the King's real intentions; he was however induced to propose the matter to his master, by the promise of a Cardinal's hat; which he passionately desired, but which Louis never procured for him.

Four days after Prince Aversberg gave M. Gremonville the answer of the Emperor, who consented to enter into negociation on the subject; provided he could be assured of the French King's sincerity; and on condition that it should be immediately commenced, without any one else being privy to it.

Louis accepted these conditions, and lost no time in sending M. Gremonville his instructions, and full powers, enabling him to sign such a treaty, as would contain the following conditions. That his catholic Majesty should make peace with Portugal on terms already agreed between them, and acknowledge it as an independent kingdom. That in order to satisfy his most Christian Majesty, for the rights of the Queen in the Low Countries, his Catholic Majesty should confirm to the King of France the possession of what he had conquered in Flanders, in his last campaign; or some equivalent in the same country, specified in the instructions. As to the partition-treaty, Louis gives his minister a variety of plans wherein he was successively to intrench himself in case he should be too hard pressed, rather than to break off the negociation: the last of which was, that Louis would be satisfied with the possession of Flanders (so intent was he on this point) Sicily and Sardinia; leaving to the Emperor the other vast possessions of the Spanish monarchy.

Gremonville having received his powers, began the negociations with Prince Aversperg. After as much *finesse*, and as many debates, as if they had been conveying the actual property of their respective sovereigns, these ministers at last signed a definitive treaty January 19, 1668. The conditions of peace with Spain were such as Louis himself proposed; such as had been already settled with the states of Holland, and which the triple alliance, concluded in January, 1668, was intended to enforce. It was moreover stipulated, that the Emperor should give the Spaniards till the end of March to accept, or refuse, these terms; in which last case, he should afford them no manner of assistance.

As to the partition treaty, in case the King of Spain should die without issue, the King of France was to have the rest of the Low Countries, Franche Comté, the kingdom of Navarre and its dependencies, the fortress of Rosas, the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily (these last were granted by Prince Aversberg in consideration of the cardinal's hat promised to him: the money lavished on the occasion is not mentioned) the Philippines, and the town on the coast of Africa; the Emperor was to have the rest of the Spanish monarchy. It was also stipulated that each of the parties should assist the other in getting possession of his respective share; and it was agreed, that for secrecy and security, the original of the treaty should be put in a sealed box, and committed to the custody of the grand Duke of Tuscany. To this, however, Louis soon after objected, fearing some indiscretion; the treaty was in consequence, made in duplicates, and Louis sent a party of his body guards to Vienna to convey the counter-part, which he was to keep.

The author affirms, that Louis XIV expressed the highest satisfaction in receiving the first copy of this treaty; saying, that the repose of Europe was now insured for a long time; this is still the language held at every new usurpation; and with as little truth now as it was then; for war broke out four years afterwards. This treaty was in the issue set aside, and the plan of partition became the cause of most sanguinary contests.

It may be observed here, how vain was the boast of the framers of the triple alliance, echoed by all historians, that this coalition had forced Louis to accede to the conditions of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. We have seen that the treaty concluded with the emperor had rendered it perfectly nugatory; nor could he, who in 1666, contracted a secret agreement with Charles II, then his enemy, have found it a very difficult matter to separate him from his new allies. Indeed, Charles himself seems to have courted seduction, for hardly had he signed that treaty when he pettishly excuses himself for so doing, and writes to his sister, the Duchess of Orleans, "that the coolness, with which his offers had been received on one side had compelled him to take part with the other," this letter of January 28, 1668, we quote *memoriter*, from Dalrymple.

Such was the craft, such were the politics, of Louis XIV! Could he have foreseen that the issue of his contrivances would have been the expulsion of his family from the throne of France, before the century was expired in which he died, what a bitter and nauseous ingredient would that anticipation have been in the cup of self flattery, and popular applause with which he was intoxicated. Fame, glory, honour, empty sounds! followed by revolution, dethronement, and murder.

In a succeeding Number we may consider this mighty monarch, as a warrior, and as a sovereign over his own people.

Verzeichniss, &c. a Catalogue of Plants which grow wild in the Neighbourhood of Gœttingen. By G. Londes, 8vo. pp. 80. Gœttingen.

THIS is a systematic catalogue of the *Phænogamiæ* according to the first twenty-three classes of Linnæus, without including the *Cryptogamiæ*, which will probably form the substance of another volume.

Poétique Anglaise, par M. Hennet. 3 vol. in 8vo. Paris.

THESE three volumes, though relating to the same subject, namely that of illustrating English poetry, differ totally in their execution, and appear to form separate works.

The first explains, not the general rules of poetry, but those which particularly belong to the English. The mechanism of English versification, the richness of expression peculiar to it, the genius and prosody of the language, are described with clearness and precision. The author runs through all the kinds of poems from the epigram to the epopea. This first part is less a cold didactic treatise, than a series of very judicious remarks, confirmed by extracts of choice pieces from the best authors.

The second volume is consecrated to the poets. Without entering into the details of the private lives of these poets, the author brings us acquainted with their character, the species of poetry which they cultivated, those poems in which they have best succeeded, and those wherein they have not been so happy. This volume contains a fund of curious anecdote but little known.

In the third, our author turns poet,

and translates into French verse those poems that are most esteemed. The original is printed by the side of the translation.

We may probably submit specimens of these translations to our readers at some future opportunity. Some of them are among the most faithful we have seen.

Poems, Lyrical and Miscellaneous, by the late Rev. Henry Moore, of Liskeard. Small 8vo. pp 204. price 4s. Johnson, London. 1806.

It is a pleasure to us to meet with religion and poetry united; we have seen much *good* poetry that was *bad* to detestation in a moral sense; and we have seen not a little religious versification, that was too stupid to be honoured with the name of poetry. And yet, there is a natural sympathy between the animation, the rapture of poetry, and the feelings of devotion. Is the sympathy so close, that like members of the same family they do not choose each other for mates? or, have the flashy qualities by which some worldly pretensions delude, seduced the weaker from the most honorable alliance to more dazzling, but more dangerous connections? Whatever be the cause the effect is unhappily notorious: to the grief of many observant minds. The work before us is a highly commendable exception, and combines much of the fervour of poetry with a religious turn of sentiment, as the reader may discern in the following specimen.

DIVINE LOVE.

My God, thy boundless love I praise,
How bright on high its glories blaze!
How sweetly bloom below!
It streams from thine eternal throne;
Thro' heaven its joys for ever run,
And o'er the earth they flow.

'Tis love that paints the purple morn,
And bids the clouds in air upborn,
Their genial drops distil;
In ev'ry vernal beam it glows,
And breathes in ev'ry gale that blows,
And glides in ev'ry rill.

It robes in cheerful green the ground,
And pours its flow'ry beauties round,
Whose sweets perfume the gale;
Its bounties richly spread the plain,
The blushing fruit, the golden grain,
And smile on ev'ry vale.

But in thy gospel see it shine,
With grace and glories more divine,
Proclaiming sins forgiven;
There Faith, bright cherub, points the way
To realms of everlasting day,
And opens all her heaven.

Then let the love that makes me blest,
With cheerful praise inspire my breast,
And ardent gratitude;
And all my thoughts and passions tend
To thee, my father and my friend,
My soul's eternal good.

Dart from thine own celestial flame
One vivid beam to warm my frame
With kindred energy;
Mark thine own image on my mind;
And teach me to be good and kind,
And love, and bless like thee.

FAITH.

Life's ceaseless labours, and illusive joys,
It's storms and waves, what brazen breast could bear,
Did not the cherub Faith's reviving voice,
Sound it's sweet music in Affliction's ear?

See she waves high upon her heavenly shore
Her flaming brand, that guides me to be blest!
Ye foaming billows roll!—ye tempests roar!
Your rage but drives me sooner to my rest.

The seaman thus, long tost by stormy seas,
Worn out with toil, and sinking with disease,
With looks of rapture eyes the black'ning land,
Forgets the past, and smiles at present pain,
Feels a new vigour thrill through ev'ry vein,
And leaps exulting on the welcome strand.

This volume appears to have been written by a Dissenting minister, who "lived in celibacy," secluded almost from the world, in a remote country town. The publication of it was proposed to the public, a short time before the death of the author, by his friend Dr. Aikin; and these poems first appeared in a quarto volume in the year 1803. The author, however, was only gratified with the prospect of advantage from the subscription, as he died the second of November, 1802. Dr. A. had the melancholy office of introducing this collection by a preface, dated Jan. 1, 1803, in which the public first learned to appreciate its loss.

Lettres sur le Valais; Letters describing the Valais, the Manners of its Inhabitants, &c. by M. Echasseriaux. 1 vol. in 8vo. Paris. Price 6s. Dulau and Co.

The discoveries of travellers receive additional importance in the eyes of sedentary readers, from the distance at which they are often placed. The savage inhabitant of a remote island, becomes, in narrative, an interesting object; accounts of his manners are perused with avidity, and the rude produce of his industry, excites the admiration of the gaping world. Less interest is raised by those remnants of ancient people, who from local or political circumstances, preserve, in the midst of Europe, some of the characteristics of its former inhabitants. Naturalists describe the physical state of countries, and their productions; but man has been too generally excluded from their researches. Other travellers, hastening to scenes of wealth, and of polished luxury, pass unnoticed, these rough but genuine, and living monuments of former ages; as they tread in contempt the uncultivated waste while their eyes are fixed on the stately park, and the elegancies of dignified domain.

Valais, situated between France, Italy, and Switzerland, has been, till now, hardly mentioned by writers of travels. Lost in the general geography of Europe, unconnected with foreign politics, and almost inaccessible; it was only known by some slight notice in the general description of Switzerland, of which it made a part, before the French revolution.

M. Echasseriaux has undertaken to supply this deficiency: he had many opportunities for observing, having been employed in that country, by the French government; and the result of his observations, is the work before us. The first part, describing the physical state of Valais, and the manners of its inhabitants, is in the form of letters; it is followed by several *landscapes* as Mr. E. quaintly terms them, or descriptions of particular sites; a superficial account of the well known natural productions of the country, terminates this small volume.

Valais, says Mr. E., is perhaps the most secluded spot in Europe by nature, and the most deficient in those communications which give life and animation to a country, by facilitating the intercourse of men, and the exchange of commodities. Two chains of mountains extending 160 miles from east to west, from Saint Gingolph to the sources of the Rhine, form this picturesque valley, whose greatest breadth is hardly three miles; five other small lateral valleys, which appear to be branches of the first, form together the territory of Valais. On the mountains and in the plains, dwells a population of 70,000 souls, which from the difference of language, and the local influence of a varying climate, seems composed of different species of men.

The revolutions of the globe have left deep traces every where in this wild spot, which is itself in a gradual state of physical revolution. At every step, the traveller beholds, and passes over, the wrecks of nature. A river which here pours like a torrent, there expands into a spreading sheet of water, shifts alternately its bed, and its course, and rolls successively its floods mixed with ruins, over the whole valley, spreading devastation. Torrents tumbling from abrupt heights furrowing the sides of the mountain, carrying sand and large stones in their rapid descent. Huge rocks at times breaking away, and overwhelming with ruin, cultivated fields, and sometimes entire villages; such is the aspect presented to the observant traveller by this territory, which seems as if it had not been intended for the habitation of man. Nature which has multiplied so many evils on this land, has nevertheless, scattered also her choicest gifts in many places. The alternate influence of a prevailing humidity, and of the heat of the climate, quickens into life the latent seeds of the most precious and most useful plants. Hills covered with vineyards, producing excellent wine; small plots of corn, scattered here and there, a variety of temperatures, and of climates, which favours at the same time the different fruits of several seasons; such is the smiling prospect nature contrasts, or rather mingles, with the wild and rough landscape I drew before.

The same instinctive impulse which has fixed large populations in the most fertile countries, which has drawn and scattered tribes and families in the most fruitful spots, has directed the distribution of the population of this country. Wherever a verdant mantle bedecks the ground, wherever a small arable plot appears, there you certainly find a house, a cottage, or a cabin; in every little plain you meet with a village or a hamlet, or, if the valley opens, with a small town. The Valaisan is confined to that spot where he can live; there he erects his dwelling, and this place is his country.

You are not, however, to expect in Valais a population adequate to the extent of its territory. The proportion of arable ground it contains, is to that of other countries of Europe as 1 to 18. Nature has left but few spots to the industry of man; mountains, rivers,

torrents, and marshes, engross the rest of the country.

The Valaisan is either a husbandman, or a shepherd; the former dwells most by the valleys, the latter on the mountains. Agriculture is the only kind of industry this people exercises, or is even acquainted with, yet it is neglected, and its produce is hardly more than adequate to the wants of the inhabitants.

Those speculations which create an active rivalship in industry, are unknown in Valais. There fortune is not the aim of ambition; but its allurements are powerless. Social institutions and national spirit tend to keep wealth and industry on a general level: little labour is exerted because wants are but few. The rude manufactures of the country, are entirely relinquished to foreign hands; mines of gold, silver, and copper, exist, but those rich metals remain buried in the mountains, nor tempt the cupidity of a poor and indolent people. Circumscribed in the narrow circle of his wants, the Valaisan does not envy the wealth, industry, and luxury diffused over the rest of Europe. No people in the world demands less from fortune, or puts itself less in the way of her favours; this people is a proof that there are nations whom example cannot seduce.

Those discoveries, those great events, which in the three last centuries have given the people of Europe such impulse towards industry and commerce, have produced no sensation in Valais. Still are the people of this country strangers to those arts and to that activity, by which cities have been built, embellished, and enriched; and which have improved society, by introducing conveniencies, enjoyments, and wealth, into private families. The Valaisan has remained stationary amid the progress of civilization; the history of the 14th century continues to be the history of this present day; the national characteristics are still the same; and the time which has elapsed has effected no alteration in his moral existence, nor improvement in his system of political economy.

Hermitages, charnel houses, chapels hewn in the rock, stationed at the foot of the mountain, on its rugged sides, and even on its dreary summit, manifest the turn of mind of the Valaisan. In this country a cross is erected before the enormous ruins of a mountain which has given way; and a cross is also raised instead of a strong dam, against threatening torrents.

The religion of the country might appear to a foreigner tinged with the fanaticism of former centuries; this however is not the case; for the Valaisan, in general, is incapable of strong and fervid passions. Sincerely attached in the simplicity of his heart, to a belief founded on conviction, he derives hence his virtues, his morality, and that honesty, the first of social excellencies, which pervades all his actions; few crimes disgrace the country; it has hardly any police, and no public force; Religion seems to be the great curb; it is the first occupation, as it is the first sentiment of the Valaisan. He is poor in his humble dwelling, but the village-church is always richly ornamented; his temple is to him the universe; a multiplicity of holydays occupies the time and the passions of a people, void of industrious activity, and equally stranger to speculations and to arts.

Such is the exterior appearance of this small state, the interior of families offers nothing very extraordinary: you will only find frequently that simplicity of manners already pourtrayed in glowing colours by a celebrated writer, (J. J. Rousseau).

This poor and inoffensive people, has however experienced the effects of that terrible revolution, whose focus was so near them. The political fermentation soon subsided; but to secure the French the entrance of Italy, the Valaisan has been torn from the congenial protection he found in his connection with Switzerland; a new constitution has been forced upon him, and Valais now forms a separate state, dependent on France. In framing the new government, some of the ancient customs of the people have been respected; but they regret the loss of many former habits; and M. E. inveighs too bitterly for a man of his seeming moderation, against the attachment they still manifest for them.

M. E. was himself one of the first law-givers of France; and Valais appears to him a fine field for improvement. His ideas although expressed in rather too lofty a style, will not be deemed by some readers undeserving of consideration, for he professes a wish to increase the wealth and knowledge of the Valaisans; yet he might be asked how these doubtful advantages, even if realized, could add to the happiness of such a people? What enjoyments can riches afford to him whose wants are but few, and whose desires extend no further? What could the Valaisan expect from the more generous pursuit of science, but to discover defects of which he has never been sensible, and to awaken sentiments of a misery new to his feelings. The great and almost the only care of its former government, was to exclude foreign manners; strangers were not permitted to settle in

the country, but with many forms and many difficulties; they were liable to be sent away at any time, and a kind of ostracism, banished even the citizen who deviated from the ancient simplicity. When the former French sovereigns had in contemplation to join the Rhone with the Po, by a canal, which was to have run through Valais, the government of that country refused their consent to the undertaking, saying, the commerce it would introduce would debase the purity of their manners.

Our author's landscapes taken separately, are not totally void of interest; but the too frequent introduction of icy mountains, dreadful precipices, roaring torrents, foaming cataracts, and all the sublime horrors of nature, throw a kind of monotony over the whole. We have chosen the following extract of M. E's. journey to the hospital of Mount St. Bernard, as no unfavourable specimen of his descriptive powers.

We were pursuing our way, endeavouring to discover the hospital of St. Bernard, among the summits of mountains heaped on mountains. We could hear nothing but the whistling of the wind, rushing through winding passages, and beating against the angles of the rocks. A dreadful stillness prevailed around us; in this spot all forms are lost in confusion: no language can afford adequate expressions, no description can convey an idea of the surrounding scenery; it was the chaos of the world. Ancient opinion and fear too well founded, have marked by sinister names every part of this dangerous valley leading to the hospital, and commanded on all sides by impending avalanches. Itself is called *the valley of the dead:* that peak which raises its head above the hospital is *the mountain of the dead:* that small building not far from the hospital is *the chapel of the dead.* At last, we perceived the hospital of St. Bernard: Hail! cried I, sacred mansion, the asylum of the unfortunate! Before we could reach it we had to cross a long way covered with snow several fathoms deep, and to overcome a very steep ascent. What a pleasure to discover this house after a painful journey! How grateful is the welcome of these respectable men, eager to receive us under their hospitable dome! We were hardly ushered in 'ere fire and refreshments were ready in the room allotted to us. The chapter of the regular canons was then assembled on affairs of the order, and in an instant we were surrounded by those venerable men. Let my gratitude acknowledge here their tender care and courtesy! The business of the chapter being over, they asked leave to quit us for a moment to go and sing a *Te Deum.* We followed them to the church. In entering it we were struck by its appearance; sculptures and marbles are its sole ornaments. From the manner in which divine service was performed, we thought ourselves in a small cathedral. The *Te Deum* began: the sight of this temple, in the solitude of the wilderness, on one of the most elevated spots of the globe; the ceremonies of religion displayed on this dreary summit; the sight of these men, devoted, amidst the horrors of nature, to the assistance of their fellow creatures; religious worship mingled in this asylum with the attentions of humanity; the sound of bells re-echoed by the rocks; the melodious tones of the organ accompanying the pathetic music of the sacred hymn; these various objects excited emotions too exquisite and too lively to be expressed. Here the soul is exalted, and its refined feelings rise to a delight vainly sought elsewhere. When the service was over we adjourned to the hall, where a frugal meal was waiting for us. It was supper time; novices in their religious garb attended us at table, and a dignified cheerfulness enlivened the entertainment. The monks seemed as easy with the strangers as with their family. At last the fatigues of the day made us hasten the hour of rest.

The interior of the hospital afterwards attracted our attention; it is not on a very large scale, but its extent seems doubled by the judicious distribution of the apartments. Although situated on the most barren spot, where every article must be conveyed by dreadful roads, it contains all that is necessary for the relief of the unfortunate. Every thing in the house announces harmony between the different branches of service; regularity and order in the administration. The exercise of humanity does not interfere with religious duties: mildness and austerity are blended in the manners of its inhabitants. Men of every religion, of every profession, the poor like the rich, are received in the hospital with equal eagerness. These monks in their promiscuous hospitality act towards mankind as if already in that state of equality which awaits us beyond the grave. During our stay in the convent, we often witnessed the uniformly kind reception of strangers of every description. Relaxation in discipline has destroyed most of the religious orders: that of the great St. Bernard has existed these ten centuries, and is still in all the fervour of its institution. How far above all others is this benevolent establishment! how much exalted above the vulgar of mankind are these men who risk their lives to save that of their fellow-creatures, who lavishing the tenderest care on strangers, impose on themselves all kinds of austerities; who, strangers to ambition, to

pride, to interest, to all the selfish motives of human action, have no recompense on earth but their virtue, and no witnesses of their meritorious and devoted lives but God!

The new military road, which our author was the first to pass, begins near Brigg, a small town at the extremity of Valais, and leads over Mount Simplon, to Domo Dassola in Italy, through the richest and most romantic scenery in the whole chain of the Alps. Twenty-two bridges, and six tunnels, hewn in the rock, one of which is 600 feet in length, attest the triumph of persevering art over rugged nature. At times, the traveller is lost in gloomy forests of firs, and larch trees: emerging from them, his senses are almost dizzied by the continual and rapid succession of diversified prospects. Secure on this elevated road, he breathes on a fine day a kind of ethereal freshness, and enjoys at the same time the pleasure of contemplating, without danger and even without fear the steep descent of the valleys, and the abrupt precipices over which he passes.

In September, 1805, says our author, the chief engineer invited me to inspect the road in order to ascertain if it was practicable, should occasion oblige us to make use of it. We left Brigg on the 7th, with the grand bailli, or chief magistrate of Valais, to open it with solemnity; our coaches, the first ever seen in this wilderness, excited the wonder of the rude inhabitants of the Alps, and of Domo Dassola. At the sight of the multitude flocking to meet us, at the signs of amazement which our equipage inspired, I beheld in imagination, the wonder of those islanders, who saw for the first time European vessels entering their bays and their harbours.

After a flowery description, from whence we have extracted this account, the author exclaims, perhaps sincerely:

May it, instead of facilitating the passage of armed battalions and of the dreadful implements of war, big with destruction, promote the circulation of peaceful commerce, which enriches nations by exchanging the produce of their arts and of their industry! Through the defiles of Mount Simplon, Roman legions formerly hastened to the conquest of Germany; may this new road, which will connect Italy with the rest of Europe, increase the means of prosperity of the several nations; it will then deservedly obtain celebrity, and will have answered its *true* destination.

This work, as the reader may perceive, affords both instruction and entertainment: but it is far from being free from the defects common to all modern French publications, tautology, overstrained sentiments, incorrect language, and frequent misuse of incoherent metaphors.

Hours of Leisure; or Essays and Characteristics, by George Brewer. 12mo. pp. 360. price 7s. boards. London, Hatchard. 1806.

This work consists of papers, and short essays, comprising remarks, characters, anecdotes, descriptions, and criticisms. It is not deficient in variety: and in its very nature is unconfined by order and method. The general tenor of these disquisitions is moral; nor has the author forgotten that the useful should accompany the agreeable. We cannot, however, compliment Mr. B. by ranking him among our best essayists: he is neither a Spectator nor a Rambler. His remarks are neither very uncommon nor very profound; his characters are less the offspring of observation in real life, than of imagination; his style is not classical, nor is it energetic. His names are unhappily chosen. Nevertheless, this volume may fill up a short leisure: if the impression it leaves on the mind be not extremely powerful, yet it will be innocent. We may commend the intention of the writer as favourable to virtue, though his labours do not appear to us to be of that higher description, which the world of letters will regard as calculated to promote in an eminent degree, the interests of general literature.

The following specimen may enable our readers to judge for themselves.

It may be said, that such are the accidents, the delays, and the cross purposes, to which we are every day liable, that nothing can be be more absurd than to endeavour to establish any certain system for the apportionment of our time. It is nevertheless as true, if a man who may be placed at the point A, should be desirous to go along a given line to the point G, that he may never be able, from interruptions, to reach the point G; but it will be too much to say that he may not reach the points D or E, or F, in the scale, and which will certainly bring him nearer to the point G than if he had never moved at all.

It is true that the course laid down by the wise man should vibrate as little from the true one, as the unhappy *variation* caused by human infirmities, resembling that of a mariner's needle, will permit: like that too, it

should be allowed for by the candid and humane: nor indeed can we tell, when the heavy swells of misfortune, or the strong currents of adversity drive the bark, how soon, with the best of us, the *reckoning* may be lost. One comfort is, that these storms do not last: that there is a harbour into which, by lowering the topsails of our pride and vanity, we may run, even under bare poles, and bring up in safety. It is true, this harbour has not a very hospitable shore; but it is land-locked, and the vessel may lie there in safety until the wind may be lulled or fair.

There is not, fairly speaking, any but the distressed man who may be said to be in want of time: all other men have, to use a common proverb, the fore horse by the head; all roads and paths are open to them, and it is their own faults if they choose the worst. But he who has got considerably in arrears with time, must not hope to overtake it by violent exertions, or by going cross-roads: if he follow diligently, and pursue the path, incident will perhaps give him a lift on his way, or at any rate he will, by patience, overtake his object.

Let us see what are the great stumbling blocks, and interruptions to a regular plan or distribution of time. First, INDOLENCE, that *vis inertia* which keeps us just where we are. Next, PLEASURE, that force which moves us easily by her allurements, when we are actually employed, and would not willingly have any thing to say to her: but these though the most open enemies of time, are not perhaps so dangerous as those which are concealed under masks of actual occupation. We have, for instance, *Pausers*, *Wishers*, *Hopers*, and *Fretters*, each of which, in their different ways, lay *waste* a portion of time. One of your great Pausers is BOB VACANT. Bob is always in a study; Bob weighs every thing, and does nothing; decides, and never moves; makes up his mind, and never acts; is in a great hurry, and never stirs. Vain are all his acquirements of learning, vain his knowledge, vain his skill and judgment. They are to him like the precious hoard of the miser, which he is always looking at, but of which he never touches a guinea.

The WISHER is another sort of being as to the nature of his thoughts, though very much resembling the former as to the consequences of his study.

TOM TELESCOPE is always wishing for something that he has not, or for that which, in the course of things, he is never likely to have. If he hears of an estate, he would like to purchase; of a place, he wishes he could obtain it; of a stranger of note, he wishes that he could see him; or of a prize, he wishes that he could get the TWENTY THOUSAND, though he has no ticket in the lottery; in short, he is always occupied in *wishing* for something or other, though in truth the matter very seldom goes any further; for, not to be troublesome to his friends, Tom generally relieves them by wishing for something else just at the moment when they are about to oblige him. Wishing justly denominated by Dr. Young "*the fever of fools*," occupies a large portion of our time in waste of thought.

The FRETTER is a being who wastes time in a still more useless and disagreeable manner; since the truth is, that a man seldom begins to fret until it is too late to remedy the mischief; and then he may as well not fret at all. FRETTING is the disease of a little ill-organized mind, that hesitates to submit to even what it knows to be irrevocable, and makes a misfortune greater by constantly contemplating its severity. It is said of Dr. Johnson, that on some person telling him of a lady of quality who had died of a broken heart for the loss of a near relation, he made answer, "Aye! If she had been a poor woman in a shop, she would not have found time to have broken her heart." And however rude or unfeeling the sentence might appear, it is true, nevertheless, that the poor seldom have opportunities for this shameful waste of time: their *daily* labours fill up the *day*, and the business of repose occupies their nights. The folly of fretting may be illustrated by the following story of two gardeners:—

Two gardeners, who were neighbours, had their crops of early peas killed by the frost. One of them came to condole with the other on this misfortune. "Ah!" cried he, "how unfortunate we have been, neigbbour! Do you know, that I have done nothing but fret ever since. But, bless me! you seem to have a fine healthy crop coming up just now. What are these?"—"These!" cried the other gardener, "why these are what I sowed immediately after my loss."—"What! coming up already?" cried the Fretter.—"Yes! While you was *fretting*, I was *working*."—"What! and don't you fret when you have a loss?"—"Yes! but I always put it off until after I have repaired the mischief."—"Lord! why then you can have no need to fret at all."—"True!" replied the industrious gardener; "and that's the very reason." In truth, it is very pleasant to have no longer occasion to think of a misfortune; and it is astonishing how many might be repaired by a little alacrity or energy.

A Walk round the Walls of the City of Chester. 8vo. pp. 106. Price 3s. 6d. Broster, Chester. A second part, not mentioned in the title page is, a Walk through the City; beginning at p. 51.

THOSE who have lived many years in

a city of not very extensive dimensions, may obtain not only a correct knowledge of its present state, but also a general notion of its history, antiquities, privileges, customs, and peculiarities; but a stranger when visiting such a place cannot always procure the company of those who are able to instruct him in these particulars, and in others with which he desires to be acquainted. A small volume, if judiciously executed, answers the purpose almost as well; and after having consulted it with attention, the traveller may proportion his excursions to his time, and may examine more objects, either purposely or incidentally, than he might at first suppose possible.

We are, therefore, friends to works like that before us; but as we cannot boast of accurate personal acquaintance with the city of Chester, we must depend on the compiler for the exercise of the requisite judgment in selecting, and precision in describing objects worthy of notice.

The contents are, a list of the Earls of Chester: a description of the gates of the town, some of which are handsome: the public and religious structures; with local information of a miscellaneous description.

The first part of this little volume is enlivened with sundry wood-cuts, which add much to its interest: the second part, though equally deserving, has no such accompaniment. The absence of a map of the city is a very serious defect.

We learn from this volume that,

William the Conqueror gave Cheshire to Gherbodus, a noble Fleming; but he dying, appointed his nephew Hugh Lupus, the first Norman Earl of Chester, and to him he delegated a great power; made it a County Palatine, and invested with such a sovereign jurisdiction, that the ancient earls held their own parliaments.

Hugh Lupus, by virtue of the King's grant, (which runs in these words,) *tenere totum hunc Comitatum sibi, et hæredibus suis ita libere ad Gladium, sicut ipse Rex tenebat Angliæ Coronam*, created several barons to assist him in his council and government, some of which we find upon record, as Nigel, Baron of Halton; Sir William Maldebeng, or Malbanc, Baron of Wich Malbanc, or Nantwich; Richard de Vernon, Baron of Shipbroke; Gilbert Venables, Baron of Kinderton; Hamon de Massey, Baron of Dunham Massey; Warren de Poynton, Baron of Stockport; Eustace de Monthalt, Baron of Monthalt.

He converted the church of St. Werburgh into an abbey by the advice of St. Anselm. He continued earl 31 years, died the 27th of July, 1101, and was buried in the churchyard, and afterwards removed to the present chapter-house of the cathedral, where his body was found in 1724, wrapped in leather, enclosed in a stone coffin; at the head of the coffin was a stone in the shape of a T, with a wolf's head, the arms which he bore, engraven on it.

His sword of dignity is preserved in the British Museum; which is in length about four feet, and so unwieldy as to require considerable strength to brandish it with both hands. His parliament was formed of eight barons, who were obliged to attend him, and every baron had four esquires, every esquire one gentleman, and every gentleman one valet. The barons had the power of life and death. This government continued till the reign of Henry the III, 1237, who resumed the earldom.

Chester was probably in the time of the Romans, or earlier, a considerable port; the Saxon navy was stationed here, and here was the seat of the Mercian kings. About the time of the conquest, the imports and exports were very considerable; one article of the latter was slaves, some of which they were probably furnished with in their frequent wars with the Welsh; and amongst the imports wine was not the least considerable—according to Lucian the monk, who praised its excellent flavour and drank it plentifully; and by the old Saxon law, if any persons made bad ale, they were to sit in a chair full of dung, or pay a fine of 4 shillings. pp. 11, 14.

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It is necessary before we conduct the traveller upon the walls, to inform him that they are the only entire specimen of ancient fortification now in the kingdom; are built on a soft freestone rock, high above the circumjacent country; are one mile three quarters, and a hundred and one yards, in circumference, and kept in excellent repair by the murage duties, the most considerable of which is, a duty of two-pence, on every hundred yards of Irish linen brought into the port of Chester. Ethelfleda is said to have "encompassed the city with walls," but she most probably only repaired the ruined fortifications, the whole form of which plainly appears to have been Roman. The old towers, which are within bow-shot of each other are still remaining on the north and east sides. p. 21.

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In commencing the walk through the city, the stranger is particularly struck with the singular appearance of the rows, or galleries, formed on each side the streets, with ranges of shops in the front, and the houses above; the streets are excavated out of the ground, the back gardens being uniformly

upon a level with the rows, and was supposed to have been so planned by the Romans,* that the citizens might repel the frequent incursions of the Welsh into the city, by bows and arrows from these elevations, p. 51.

Dictionnaire Portatif,— Russe-François-Allemand, 2 vols. Dictionnaire Portatif, François-Russe-Allemand, 1 vol. Deutsch-Russisch-Franzœsisches-Taschen-Worterbuch, 1 vol.

THESE four volumes comprise correspondent dictionaries of the three languages, Russian, French, and German, in reference to each other: but the words of each alternately placed first, and, of course, translated into the other languages respectively. They are folded into the square form, resembling our Entick's Dictionary, and therefore, we presume, are called *portatif*: yet, in fact, they rather exceed what is conveniently portable. All the four volumes may be considered as forming one work: or they may be separated according to the language of the bearer. The public is indebted for them to the labour of M. J. Heym, professor at the University of Moscow. They are published at Riga and Leipsic, 1805, and are sold by Boosey, London. Price £2. 2s.

As Mr. Professor Heym appears to us, so far as we have inspected these volumes, to have executed his very useful undertaking with skill and fidelity, we shall translate his modest preface, by which the public will judge of his intention and his resources.

The want experienced by the public of a Russian, French, and German Dictionary, which without being either voluminous or expensive, should satisfy those who engage in the study of these languages, determined me to accept the proposal of M. Hartmann, bookseller at Riga, to undertake the execution of the present work. To justify the confidence so frankly placed in me, as well as to become useful to the public, and especially to Russian and foreign youth, I have exerted every effort to render this pocket dictionary as perfect as can be expected in works of this nature. M. Hartmann on his part has endeavoured, that, notwithstanding the considerable expences occasioned by the fount of new characters, cut on purpose for this work, it may be sold at a very moderate price. The Russian part of it is an abstract, by myself, from my great dictionary completed according to the model of that of the Russian academy at St. Petersburgh. For the French and German I have, for the most part, followed the pocket dictionary, published at Leipzic in 1798, as that which appeared to me to be the most conducive to the end I had in view. If the public should give a favourable reception to this work, it will be the most grateful recompense for the labour it has cost me, for it will be an assurance that I have rendered myself useful.

Moscow, 1804. HEYM.

Of the Russian part of this work, in particular, very good judges, who have more leisure to peruse it than we have, speak with great approbation.

Twenty four Lectures on the Italian Language, by M. Galignani: in which the principles, harmony, and beauties of that language are simplified, and adapted to the meanest capacity, &c. Second edition, enlarged one third with numberless additions and improvements, by the editor, Antonio Montucci, Sanese, LLD. 8vo. pp. 340. Price 7s. boards. Edinburgh, for Boosey, London. 1806.

THIS being a second edition we shall rather register this work than review it: yet we acknowledge that this edition is considerably enlarged and improved. The editor has taken advantage of hints suggested on the work, at its first appearance, and indeed, he seems to be rather fond of his didactic office. His good sense, however, has led him to insert three or four pages of retractions and corrections, which we think much to his honour. Nor should we have thought the less of his learning if he had omitted certain reflections on the labours of others. We are, indeed, desirous that when a language is taught it should be taught in its purity; but there are so many dialects in Italy, and so strong attachments to each of them, that scarcely any two Italians agree what is purity. The Tuscan is usually preferred; but those who speak the best language as to terms, do not pronounce it in the best manner; whence the saying, *Lingua Toscana in bocca Romana.*

The volume contains a very extensive view of Italian grammar; and the notes by the editor appear to be interesting and valuable: many of them manifest a mind exercised in the niceties and distinctions

* The old Roman, or Watling-street pavement, is frequently discovered considerably below the present surface.

of the language. On the whole, we are of opinion that not students only, but masters may derive advantage from a perusal of this performance. Masters will, however, as is but natural, give the preference to their own modes of teaching; and whether Dr. Montucci will convert them, may be more than doubted. From several hints which occur in this work and the following, we recommend to parents to watch very narrowly the sentiments, principles, maxims, and allusions contained in the grammars, &c. of foreign languages: and we urge this attention on masters with increased solicitude, because they must know that their very bread may fail them, in consequence of incautious, or inconsiderate offences against good manners, loyalty, or the established ordinances of our church.

Italian Extracts; or a supplement to Galignani's Lectures: consisting of an extensive selection from the best classic and modern Italian authors; preceded by a copious vocabulary, with familiar phrases and dialogues. By Antonio Montucci, Sanese, LLD. 8vo. pp. 376. price 7s. Edinburgh, for Boosey, London. 1806.

In this volume which is a companion to the former, Dr. Montucci appears in the character of an original author, or rather compiler. His work opens with a melancholy account of the decline of Tuscan literature, which we conceive is little calculated to encourage students of the Italian language. Shortly follows rather a condemnation than an examination of Veneroni's dialogues, whose grammar Dr. M. recommends to the proper notice of the Society for the Suppression of Vice. After this, we have an extensive vocabulary taken from the *Ortografia Italiana* of Facciolata: we think this a useful article. We have next familiar phrases, and easy dialogues, which "the reader may be assured are accurate specimens of the *modern* colloquial style now used in Italy," though the author acknowledges they "would not stand the test of critical enquiry, instituted with *Della Crusca's Vocabolario* in hand."

But the greater part of this volume is occupied by a collection of tables, anecdotes, witticisms, and other selections, illustrative of the modern stile of composition, by which is principally intended that of the last sixty or seventy years, during which the Italian language has been enriched say some, degraded say others, with Dr. M. among them, by new phrases and combinations of expressions. In the concluding selection, which exemplifies the classic style, Boccace, Ariosto, and Tasso, as might be expected stand forward, as chiefs: Dante also is conspicuous. A few others are honoured with the character of classics.

We have not read this book with scrupulous attention: but from what we have seen of it, we think the contents valuable; and should recommend it to those advanced in Italian literature. Dr. M. professes to have consulted the interest of morals as well as of letters in this compendium; and assures us that he has carefully excluded the most remote allusion to improprieties of every kind. We commend his delicacy, and repeat our call on the attention of both parents and teachers to this consideration. The rising generation is the hope of the state; the preservation of its integrity in every kind of laudable principles, is of the utmost consequence, not only to the individual, but to the common wealth, and indeed, to the future character, if not existence, of the British nation. Dr M. professes, also to have corrected very many instances of imperfect English style, which disfigured the former edition of Galignani: yet we must be allowed to wish that both volumes had been revised by some competent English critic.

Pesth, &c. 1. Directory for the Town of Pesth in Hungary, for the year 1805. 2. An Alphabetical Description of all the Streets, Markets, Places, Churches, public Buildings, and other objects of notice in Pesth; being an appendix to the directory, with a plan. By Paul Ruth, M. D.

No. 1, is introduced by a brief history of Pesth, which certainly requires much improvement and many additions; but from which we learn that the present town was first raised from its ruins in 1686. And that having by fire and devastation lost its ancient archives, neither the period of its fortification, nor that of its being made an imperial free city, can now be ascertained. Its improvement and increase have been very rapid since 1787, at which period were enumerated

22,417 inhabitants, and 2909 houses. The suburbs Leopoldstadt, and Franciscstadt, were added in 1790.

The lighting of the town only commenced in 1790 It is however of importance for Hungary that Pesth is making improvements in municipal police, as it is a pattern for others, especially for the southern cities. A public city teacher of drawing instructs the pupils in all professions dependent on drawing.

Here is no general public hospital, although the great building which Joseph II. proposed to assign to this purpose stands complete.

Subjoined is a catalogue of magistrates, city officers, clergy of all sects, lawyers, physicians, merchants, manufacturers, &c. from which we infer, that in general, three orders of society principally influence the inhabitants of Pesth: the numerous order of merchants: the decasterial order of the imperial tribunals, with the considerable body of lawyers and jurists; and lastly the literati, whose principal support is the royal university. The varied influence of these orders in producing the sum of morals and mental culture, if described by an impartial observer must be interesting. At times, the influence of the literati seems to be of little importance.

Pesth and Buda are sometimes the seat of a Diet (Reichstug) a circumstance which operates powerfully on the opinions, morals, and culture of a town. The great number of lawyers is striking; on the contrary, we find noticed only three wholesale dealers in the productions of the country; four booksellers, three printers, three copper-plate engravers; two dealers in articles of art, and three sculptors. Many statistic results might be deduced by the inquisitive from the proportion of one trade to another. The warehouses and shops of inland manufactures, deserve a separate chapter: for instance, the Galez cloth manufacture, the Hollitch porcelaine manufacture, &c. also the four annual fairs.

No. 2. in part supplies what is wanting in No. 1. The plan is drawn on a large scale, by Anton von Balta, county engineer, and reduced by Rudolph Witch, engineer to Count Bathyany; it is divided into squares of 10,000 squares fathoms each; that by the help of reference, figures and letters, every street may be found in the alphabetical index. A more complete and detailed plan of Pesth and Buda is expected from M. Von Lipsky. Viewed from the heights of Buda, on the other side of the Danube, Pesth much resembles the sandy environs of Berlin; there are few public places of amusement; the rather distant garden of Orchzy, the town forest, and the stone quarry are the only ones. The editor rightly observes, that a systematic perseverance may produce refreshing shades, and green turf even in sandy wastes. The banks of the Danube, the environs of Buda, the islands in the Danube are the principal places of resort to the friends of nature, here. The literati of Pesth have not less than four libraries at hand; that of the university, that of the Count Szechenycsche, the imrial, the Cornidessische Telchçihe, and lastly that of Nicolus Janhovics, the general use of the two last might be made much easier by a readier admittance.

L'Historien de la Jeunesse, &c. The Historian for Youth, or a selection of memorable events taken from history, ancient and modern, adapted to adorn the minds of youth, to form their manners, and to inculcate good principles, and noble and virtuous sentiments. Crown 8vo. pp. 372. Paris, Bertin. 1805. Price 6s. Dulau and Co. London.

A principal use of history is, precedent and example; and though it be true, that history for the most part presents examples to be avoided, yet it is but fair, that such actions and characters as she has recorded, which are adapted for the benefit of mankind, should be allowed their full power and importance. Times are never so bad, as to be wholly destitute of great and noble minds, whose virtues shine with the greater lustre in proportion to the darkness with which they are surrounded; according to the expression of Shakspeare;

> How far that little candle throws its beams!
> So shines a good deed in a naughty world.

We are therefore favourable to attempts like the present: which combine example and renown; and interest the mind, of youth especially, with the compound power of striking incident and celebrated character. The little volume before us, appears to be as proper for youth as any French work of the kind we have seen. The incidents are drawn from ancient as well as modern times; and the characters include various ranks and conditions of life.

SOME ACCOUNT OF THE PERSONS INCLUDED IN THE PROPHECY * OF M. DE CAZOTTE.

[Continued from page 541.]

CHRETIEN GUILLAUME DE LAMOIGNON DE MALESHERBES

Was born at Paris the 16th of December 1721; he was descended from a family distinguished both for its ancient nobility, and for the eminent services it had rendered to the kingdom. His father was chancellor of France.

Malesherbes, destined for the highest offices of the state, applied himself with enthusiasm to the study of the laws, and in his father he possessed an admirable master, a tender friend, and indeed an example of every shining quality.

With the intention of preparing him to exercise with dignity the august functions of magistracy, his father appointed him deputy solicitor general, and afterwards counsellor to the parliament of Paris, although he was only 24 years of age—and he succeeded his father as first president of the Court of Aids in December 1750, which office he filled for 25 years. He likewise had the inspection of the press. In 1768 his father was disgraced, and Malesherbes resigned his situation as director of the press, which threw all the literati into despair, as he had been upon all occasions their zealous friend. In 1771, in consequence of his expostulations relative to the conduct of Maupeou and his party, he was banished to his country seat. Here, withdrawn from the stage of public affairs, he passed his days in serenity and retirement; dividing his time between his family, his books, and the cultivation of his gardens.

He had written a vast number of valuable remarks on the political condition of France, on the administration of justice, on agriculture, and natural history. These observations, which he designed to arrange, and which were afterwards carried off by the revolutionary barbarians, breathed the spirit of an enlarged philanthrophy, an enthusiastic love of his native land, and a lofty and valorous independence.

Every hour of his day was marked by benevolent actions or useful discoveries. Rising before the dawn, he took delight in digging the ground; and never forsook his task, till, exhausted by fatigue, he would retire to repose himself under the shade of trees which his own hand had planted.

His mansion was furnished in the most unostentatious style; for he found more pleasure in giving bread to a hundred poor persons, than in squandering immense sums on costly decorations. His place was laid out upon the principles of the old gothic manner; accordingly, people of *taste* advised him to throw all down, and rebuild upon a modern plan—but he had inherited the edifice; all his ancestors had lived in it, and he preserved it as a family-piece; a sacred monument of his attachment and respect to his forefathers.

His table was economically supplied, and his domestics few, although his annual expense was considerable; but his wealth was employed for the gratification and advantage of his dependents: canals carefully formed, meadows reclaimed, marshes drained, the roads in his neighbourhood skilfully made, dykes opposed to the violence of the torrents, umbrageous walks, and picturesque plantations, were the objects on which Malesherbes expended his income.

To facilitate the communication with different parts of the country, he constructed several bridges of solid masonry. The inhabitants loved him as a parent; and under his influence every one enjoyed a degree of respectable ease. The children received instruction, the aged were held in honour; and the peasant who had cultivated his fields with most care, and managed his flocks or herds to the greatest advantage, obtained a premium, which gave birth to a virtuous emulation, and tended highly to the improvement of agriculture.

He was plain in his dress and manner of living, and disliked those grand entertainments and dinners of ceremony, where the majority of persons in power waste the time they should devote to their duties. He often passed whole nights without sleeping; and, in his latter years, lay down with half his clothes on, that he might be the sooner ready for business when he rose.

While this venerable philosopher forgot, in the bosom of tranquillity, the shameful manœuvres of court intrigue, the disgraceful traffic of corruption, and the arbitrary acts of despotic power, Lewis XV. wore out among his mistresses the remnant of a despicable life; and his perfidious counsellors continued, day after day, to dig still deeper that abyss which ere long was destined to ingulph the antique colossus of the monarchy.

On the accession of Louis XVI. he was recalled from his banishment and took his place as president of the Court of Aids as usual, and in 1775 was appointed minister of state—which he resigned in May 1776. He travelled into Switzerland and Holland, and after several years returned to his country seat, where he was received by the inhabitants with the utmost joy. He was again called to the kings councils in 1786, but finding all his endeavours ineffectual to prevent the storm that was coming on he again retired from the court, to pass his days in the

* Panorama, pages 64 to 70, Review of M. de la Harpe's works.

bosom of his family, where he remained until the king was dethroned; when hearing of the decree of the convention for his trial, he set off for Paris, and wrote the following letter to the president.

"Citizen President: I know not if the national convention will allow Lewis XVI. counsel to defend him, or whether he will be permitted to choose any; if so, I desire Lewis may be informed, that, should he make choice of me for that office, I am ready to undertake it.

"I do not ask you to disclose my proposal to the convention; for I am far from thinking myself a person of such importance as to attract its notice; but I was twice called to the councils of him who was my master, in times when that station was an object of ambition to all; I owe him the same service when, in the opinion of many, the post is one of some danger.

"Did I possess any possible method of acquainting him with my inclinations, I should not take the liberty of addressing myself to you.

"It occurs to me, that, from the situation you hold, you may have a better opportunity than any one else of giving him this information. I am, with respect," &c.

This letter deserves to occupy a conspicuous page in the annals of virtue; as an everlasting monument of courage, of modesty, and greatness of mind: nor can ancient or modern times afford a brighter instance of exalted generosity. Here we behold Malesherbes; and history will inscribe amidst its fairest records, this sublime act of a man of seventy, who, at the moment when terror chilled the ardour of the bravest, stepped forward to solicit, as the most signal favour, permission to defend a king, bereft of his crown, and treated as the lowest criminal.

The 14th of December, 1792, Malesherbes was introduced at the Temple: the king, running to meet him, threw his arms round him, and Malesherbes burst into tears. It is easy to conceive that the interview was extremely affecting!

How poignant must have been the reflections of this great and good old man, on discovering in a dismal prison the king, whom he had beheld seated on the proudest throne of the earth; on recollecting, that, when last admitted to his councils, his will could have decided the fate of Europe! but that now he had come to try to rescue from the vilest death a prince who had but the other day governed twenty-four millions of men.

Let us hear him speak for himself in the words of an historical fragment found among his papers.

"The moment I obtained leave to enter the king's apartment, I hastened thither, and scarcely had he seen me, when he quitted a volume of Tacitus, which lay open before him on a little table, and took me in his arms: tears started into his eyes, and he said to me, 'this sacrifice of yourself is the more generous, as you have thereby exposed your own life, and will not be able to save mine."

After sentence of death had been decreed, M. de Malesherbes, says Clery, came to the Temple: "It was Thursday the 17th of January, about nine o'clock in the morning when he entered our apartment. I ran to meet him: "All is lost!" said he, "the king is condemned!" His majesty, who saw him come in, rose to receive him. The venerable man fell at his feet, he was almost suffocated with grief, and remained some moments before he could utter a word. The king raised him up, and affectionately embraced him. He then informed his majesty of the decree which sentenced him to death. The monarch did not betray the least emotion or surprise; he seemed only affected with extreme grief for his respectable old friend and minister, and endeavoured even to comfort him! "Sire, you do not want courage, said Malesherbes, your fatal sentence is decreed!"—"I all along expected it." replied Lewis, with a calm and tranquil look: "In God's name, dear Malesherbes, do not weep: we shall meet again in a happier world."

The monsters of terror never forgave him for his attachment to his master, and therefore made a most terrible example of him. One day, when, with a spade in his hand, he was walking in his grounds, he saw approaching him four ghastly looking men, with lank hair and livid complexions: he thought he observed these people take the direct road to his dwelling: a violent terror seized him; his knees bent under him, and it was with the utmost difficulty he was able to reach the house.

These were four members of the revolutionary committee of the section of Bondy, who came to arrest Madame Lepelletier-Rosambo, the daughter of Malesherbes, and her husband, once first president of the parliament of Paris.

It is hardly possible to conceive the misery of the old man, when he saw himself torn from the arms of his much loved daughter! He struck his forehead—uttered loud lamentations, and flung himself at the feet of the barbarians, beseeching them, in pity, to take him with his children. Can a picture of greater affliction than this be imagined! Young Rosambo, and M. and Madame de Chateaubrian, the grandchildren of Malesherbes, beheld themselves severed from their excellent parents, and were obliged to find consolation for their venerable grandfather, when they were themselves the victims of the deepest despair!

At last, they were forced asunder; and Malesherbes was enabled to bid them farewell, only by the hope of following his family to prison on the next day. That idea even served to restore his courage: to him time seemed to move slowly; he waited with impatience for the morrow, nor was ever a day of festivity more eagerly longed for.

His dreadful wish was but too well complied with: the hired ruffians of the revolution were always men of their words when they promised to afflict. Malesherbes and his grandchildren were arrested, and his papers sealed. The report of his arrest spread through the village, and all the inhabitants ran forth in tears to bid him adieu! Neither a dread of the revolutionary murderers, nor the presence of an armed force, could repress their murmurs at the tyrannic act which took their friend and father from among them. One exclaimed, that to him he owed his little fortune; another, that he had rescued him from destruction, by assisting him when in distress; a third, that he had rebuilt his house consumed by fire; others that he had bestowed the bread of industry on their children:—all proclaimed aloud his benevolence and his virtues; and poured upbraidings and curses on his persecutors.

The municipality immediately assembled, and resolving that he should not be escorted by the soldiers of the police, like the meanest malefactor, unanimously decreed to convey him safely; and four of the members had the gallantry to accompany him to Paris, that he might be spared the mortification of travelling with hired assassins.

Malesherbes had hoped to be reunited with all his family: but this expectation was cruelly disappointed! His enemies determined he should drink the last drop in the cup of bitterness; and the ferocious revolutionists took the barbarous precaution of dispersing his children in different places of confinement. His grandson, the young Lepelletier-Rosambo was the only one shut up with him in the prison of Les Madelonettes.

The ingenuous simplicity of the child frequently made him smile with pleasure: he was charmed at discerning in his young heart the germ of a noble nature; and delighted to assist its growth by instilling liberal precepts, and the lessons of wisdom.

As soon as he reached Port-Libre, he wrote a letter to one of his friends, describing his situation. He says, "I expect the worst; they will never forgive me for defending the hapless Lewis XVI.! Nevertheless I solemnly protest, that I glory in sacrificing my life for him; and, far from repenting that act, would again do the same, were it again to be done."

Malesherbes heard unmoved his own sentence; but the condemnation of his daughter * and grand-daughter rent his heart. The thought of seeing two weak and helpless creatures perish, whose very sex should have saved them from proscription, shook his fortitude.

Being taken back to the *Conciergerie*, his courage returned:—and he exhorted his children to prepare for death.

When the fatal bell rung, Malesherbes recovered all his wonted cheerfulness. Having paid to nature the tribute of feeling, he desired to give his children an example of magnanimity; his looks exhibited the sublime serenity of virtue and innocence, and taught them to view death undismayed.

In crossing the court of the Conciergerie, from feebleness, he struck his foot rudely against a stone—"Oh," said Malesherbes to the person next him, "that is what they term an unlucky presage—now, a Roman in my place would have gone back;"—and he proceeded smiling.

When he ascended the cart, he conversed with his family, unaffected by the clamours of the ferocious populace; and, on arriving at the foot of the scaffold, took a last and solemn farewell of his children: immediately

* His daughter, Madame Lepelletier Rosambo, whose husband had been guillotined a few days before, on receiving her sentence of condemnation, immediately went to Mlle. Sombreuil who was in the same prison, and thus addressed her: "You, Madam, have "had the glory of saving your father's life, "and I have now the consolation, at "least, of dying with mine, with my chil- "dren, and of following my poor husband."

Mlle. Sombreuil saved her father's life at the massacre of the prisons, Sept. 2, 1792; the same night that M. Cazotte was saved by his daughter, and at the same prison. Notwithstanding the heroic conduct of this young lady, her father was guillotined afterwards by the revolutionary tribunal at the age of 74; he was marshal of France, and governor of the Invalides; he was sent to the scaffold in a red shirt.

She lost likewise both her brothers; the eldest was guillotined: the other, after he had capitulated, was shot by Tallien's orders, for his loyalty to his sovereign, in the market place of Vannes.

Jouis de ton triomphe, ô moderne Antigone,
Quel que soit le décret, et du peuple et du trône,
Tes saints efforts vivront, d'âge en âge bénis;
Pour admirer ton cœur tous les cœurs sont unis,
Et ton zèle, à jamais cher aux partis contraires,
Est des enfants l'exemple, et la gloire des pères.
Faut-il qu'au meurtre son père ait échappé?
Des brigands l'ont absous, des juges l'ont frappé!

Le Gouvé.

after, he was dismissed into eternity—and then his whole family!

Quel est donc ce vieillard?..et par quelle injustice...
Quoi! Malesherbes, c'est toi qu'on entraîne au supplice!
Ta fille y marche aussi; son époux, ses enfans
Sont frappés à la fois, l'un sur l'autre expirans!
Trois générations s'éteignent comme une ombre!
Homme pur, calme-toi dans ta demeure sombre:
Qui connut tes vertus, pour toujours est en deuil;
La tendre humanité gémit sur ton cercueil.
Tes bourreaux sont flétris; ta mémoire est chérie!
L'honneur de ton supplice a couronné ta vie.

Malesherbes was aged seventy-two years, four months, and fifteen days. He was perhaps, one of the best men of his time, and his character will descend without a stain to posterity.

M. de Malesherbes had attached himself to the sect of the *Economistes* and had written entirely on their principles, which contributed much to bring about the revolution, although that was never his intention. In the notes which he left on the death of Louis XVI is the following remarkable passage: "M. Turgot et moi étions de forts honnêtes gens, très-instruits, passionnés pour le bien; qui n'eût pas pensé qu'on ne pouvoit pas mieux faire que de nous choisir? Cependant nous avons mal administré. Ne connoissant les hommes que par les livres, manquant d'habileté pour les affaires, nous avons laissé diriger le Roi par M. de Maurepas, qui ajouta toute sa foiblesse à celle de son élève, et sans le vouloir, ni le prévoir, nous avons contribué à la révolution."

The celebrated M. de Chateaubriand, author of *Atala* and *le Génie du Christianisme*, was nephew of M. de Malesherbes; and his brother and sister were guillotined with M. de Malesherbes, but M. de C. had the good luck to make his escape to England, where he resided some time, and was personally known to the writer of this article. He is now pensioned by Buonaparte, and writes for the Mercure.

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MARIE-JEAN-ANTOINE-NICOLAS CARITAT, MARQUIS DE CONDORCET,

Was born September 17th, 1743, at Ribaumont, in Picardy, where his father, the Chevalier Condorcet, had married the daughter of the deputy-comptroller of Amiens. He soon lost him: and his uncle, then bishop of Gap, in Dauphiné, took charge of his education. He was designed for the church, but the Countess of Gruel-d'Ussays, his first cousin, thinking his disposition more suitable to a military life, persuaded the prelate to consent to his entering the army. He was then sent to the siege of Auxerre, and the young Condorcet was nominated to a lieutenancy in a regiment of dragoons, which he never joined, in consequence of a dispute he had with the Chevalier d'Abon, who publicly gave him a blow, which he never resented. The bishop and his relations then advised him to apply to literature, for which he shewed great taste.

After this adventure, by no means honourable to his courage, he manifested a desire to become chancellor of the ordre of Saint-Lazare du Mont-Carmel. He consulted Cherin, the genealogist, on the subject, who advised him not to make application, there being no prospect of success, as he could not produce certain proofs that would be required of him by Monsieur the King's brother, who was the chief of the order. In consequence of which, he swore eternal hatred to the court and the nobility, and wrote continually against those ministers who had rendered him great services.

He married a young lady of the name of Grouchy, by the interference of the Duke de la Rochefoucault, who generously gave him an hundred thousand livres for the marriage portion, and who afterwards introduced him into high life, and obtained him several pensions. Although the Duke was so great a friend to him, yet it is asserted, and with much appearance of truth, that he directed his assassination* in the month of September,

* Louis-Alexandre, duc de la Rochefoucault et de la Roche-Guyon, peer of France, fomerly member of the constituent assembly, distinguished himself equally by his indefatigable application to the sciences, and by his strict virtue. He accepted the office of President of the department of Paris, and signed the decree for superseding Petion and Manuel after the 20th of June. The national assembly having re-instated them, he foresaw that great calamities would in consequence take place, and determined on quitting Paris, to avoid being a witness of its effects. He was advised to retire to England, but filial and conjugal piety prevented him.

It is said, that Santerre, at the solicitation of Condorcet, took advantage of the fury of the populace to sign an order for arresting the Duke. A commissary of the commune was appointed and sent to Forges for this purpose; but being more humane than his confederates, he apprised the Duke of his danger, and made him consent to go to his estate, at Roche-Guyon, to which place he offered to take and keep him under his care. They set off together in the same carriage. In passing through Gisors, they were met, as if by chance, on the 14th, by a detachment of cut-throats, purposely sent from Paris, who demanded with excessive fury the head of the Duke: an immense number of national guards came suddenly to his assist-

1792; as Condorcet and the rest of the Brissotins never forgave the Duke for signing the decree for superseding their creatures, Petion and Manuel. To convince our readers what interest this faction took in the success of their intrigues subsequent to the 10th of August, we shall extract a passage from Condorcet's speech, delivered some time after:—

"Si quelques vengeances ont éclaté, on "peut dire que le peuple ne s'est point "trompé dans le choix des victimes."—"If some vengeances have burst forth, it may be said the people were not mistaken in the choice of their victims."

Some of Condorcet's friends, who detested Louis XVth's Queen, wished him to put his wife in the way of the King, that she might become his mistress. The Marquis was base enough to accede to the plan, although he has since declared that he could not *intrigue*:* it was agreed that the Marchioness should shew herself alone in the theatre at Versailles some night when the Queen could not be present; accordingly, one evening, when they were assured that her Majesty would be at Grand Trianon, the Marchioness appeared in the Count d'Angivilliers's box. The King particularly noticed her, seemed much pleased, and was bestowing great encomiums upon her; when the Queen, who had been apprised of the plan, suddenly entered the King's box, and, darting a look of contempt upon his

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ance; he crossed the town in the middle of a quadruple line of national guards, their commandant and mayor. A cart stood across the way in a narrow road leading out of Gisors; an assassin darted at the duke, and threw a large stone (which he tore from the pavement) at him, with such force as killed him instantly, and he fell in the arms of Madame d'Arville, his mother, who was 93 years of age.

In the first assembly he demanded the liberty of the press, the King's veto, the suppression of the order of monks, and wished to establish the English government, with certain modifications.

He was the fourth of his family assassinated in that month, reckoning the two Bishops of Beauvais and Saintes, who were murdered in the Carmes at Paris; and Charles de Rohan Chabot, his brother-in-law, who was killed at l'Abbaye. We have a letter now before us acquainting us with the death of his aunt, the particulars of which will be found in our Obituary for this month.

* M. de Condorcet says, in his eulogies of some of his fellow academicians, that literary men were very proper to have the government of states; "but," added he, "the "evil is, that the literati are *not fitted for* "*intrigue*." However, to remedy that inconvenience in himself, he formed a *little intrigue* against the revenues of the Academy of Sciences, by which he proposed nothing less than to appropriate half the income to himself. The fact was as follows:—The Academy of Sciences had asked the King to restore twelve thousand livres (£500) a year, which the Abbé Terray had taken away from them. M. d'Alembert and the Marquis de Condorcet had signed the resolution which had been adopted for appropriating these funds to the encouragement of the arts and sciences. Notwithstanding this, M. Turgot, when he granted the request, disposed of five thousand livres (£208) a year in favour of the Marquis, to the great astonishment of the Academy; who complained that a sum originally destined to the use of the company for the public benefit, should be thus employed, and without any authority, to favour an individual. It happened that about this time, M. d'Alembert having borrowed the registers of the Academy from M. de Fouchy, perpetual secretary to the Academy of Sciences, the latter, after having frequently asked for them in vain, sent for them one morning in a very peremptory manner. In sending them back in such haste, M. d'Alembert unwarily left among them the sketch of a memorial to the controleur-general, begging him to appropriate five thousand of the twelve thousand livres which were to be restored to the Academy, to the use of the Marquis de Condorcet, joint secretary of the Academy; and "to give only one thousand "to *that poor creature* de Fouchy, who "ought to be dismissed, as a man no longer "capable of performing the duties of his "office." M. de Fouchy, who found the paper, surprised at seeing himself treated as a weak man, and indignant at the plot which had been secretly formed against him, denounced M. d'Alembert to the Academy, as guilty of having converted the funds destined for the use of the company, to the advantage of his creature and friend, the Marquis de Condorcet. As for the incapacity of which he had been accused, he demanded that a committee should be appointed to judge of the extract he made from the memorial of the Academy, and that his continuance in office should depend upon the issue. M. d'Alembert and the Marquis saw that it would be prudent to stifle the affair: and in spite of the just clamours which had been raised against them, some honorary academicians, and among others M. de Trudaine, being concerned in it, the rising storm was appeased; and nothing remained but the impression which was made upon the mind, that, notwithstanding Condorcet's assertion, men of letters are as well adapted for intrigues as men of the world.—*Dutens' Memoirs of a Traveller, now in Retirement*, vol. iii. p. 156

Majesty and those who were with him, demanded, in a haughty tone, who that woman was? and observed, that if she was not worthy to be presented at court, she ought not to be there.

Condorcet and his Marchioness now found it necessary to retire into private life for some time, and ever after he continued a most inveterate enemy of the King and Queen. He afterwards became connected with the Voltaires, d'Alemberts, &c. and was of course one of the officiating priests of the new* doctrines raised against the Christian religion and lawful monarchy. Addressing himself to the Academy in 1783,† Condorcet thus spoke concerning Christianity—"En-"core quelques années, et le monstre qui "dévore la terre depuis dix-huit siècles, ne "sera plus.—A few years more, and the "monster who devours the earth for these "18 centuries, shall be no more." Strange to say, while he was upholding such doctrines, the King of Prussia (Frederick *the Great*, as he was called) did not scruple to correspond with him, and nominate him member of his Academy; the Empress of Russia likewise made him member of the Imperial Academy of Russia. When he entered into the revolution, which he did from the very beginning, and was putting into practice what he had before only preached, the Empress, and the last King of Prussia, (not his friend Frederick) ordered his name to be erased from the registers of both academies, which was a very severe wound to his ambition and pride.

The spirit of the revolution had got such possession of him, that he neglected the Royal Academies of Paris for the tribune of the Jacobins. He was elected one of the legislative assembly, and of the convention which succeeded it, where he voted for the King's being "kept in irons during the "remainder of his life;" a punishment, as he expressed himself, "the strongest next to "that of death."

He continued one of the most active partisans of the Brissotin faction, till Robespierre's revolution of the 31st May, 1793, overturned them and their projects. When they were sent to prison, he had the good luck to escape, and found a temporary refuge in the house of Garat. He afterwards was secreted by a lady of his acquaintance, until the domiciliary visits took place in April, 1794, when he was obliged to retire from his abode, and he left Paris disguised as an old woman. Afterwards, dressed like one of the lowest class of the people, he went to a friend's house at Sceaux who was absent from home. Obliged to hide himself by day, and to wander by night, he secreted himself for some time in the quarries at Gentily near Sceaux, till hunger forced him from his concealment. At length he went to a public house at Clamart, where he was remarked by the voracity with which he devoured the food that was set before him, by his very long beard, by the wretchedness, and by the melancholy disquiet manifest in his countenance. He was in consequence taken before the revolutionary committee sitting there, (Clamart) where he declared he was a servant, and that his name was Simon*; but, upon being examined and searched, he was found to possess a Horace, with manuscript notes; they therefore ordered him to be imprisoned at Bourg-la-Reine, until the committee received instructions from Paris for future proceedings against him. In going there he fainted away, and could not walk any farther than Chatillon, from whence he was conducted on horseback. He was safely lodged in prison; but the next morning when the gaoler went to visit him, he found him dead, prostrate on the floor.—It is generally believed that *his death was occasioned by poison*, as he always carried it about him for that purpose, to use at the last extremity.

Our readers will judge, when they consider the dreadful state Condorcet was reduced to, whether he could leave the world without *some pangs of conscience*, without *some remorse*, for his past actions, as he boasted he should do, in the speech he delivered for dethroning the King†, (his benefactor; as well as the Duke de la Rochefoucault). It is not unworthy remark, that in the same speech he should have boasted of the ascendancy of Pethion's virtues, and of his unbounded patriotism; and that Pethion should have, like him, escaped from decapitation: should have hid himself by day, and wandered by night,

* A fatal and destructive doctrine, which tears from misery its consolation, from virtue its immortality; freezes the heart of the good man, by depriving him of his witness and friend; and renders justice only to the wicked, whom it annihilates.—*M. de la Harpe's Works*, Panorama, p. 781.

† *Discours de l'Ouverture de l'Académie en* 1783.—Vide *L'Année Littéraire* for 1783.

* "Ay, ay, you may tell us you are a servant," said the countryman that interrogated him, "but I believe you are more likely to be one of the *ci-devants* who used to keep servants."

† Quelque jugement que nos contemporains ou la postérité puissent porter de nous, nous n'aurons pas à craindre celui de notre conscience; à quelque danger que nous soyons exposés, nous échapperons du moins aux remords.—*Exposition des motifs d'après lesquels l'assemblée nationale a proclamé la convocation d'une convention nationale, et prononcé la suspension du pouvoir-exécutif dans les mains du Roi.*

till he met with the horrid fate of being starved to death; his body was found, with Buzot's, another of his friends, in a field in the department of Gironde, half devoured by animals.

Condorcet's writings were various: he had a remarkable memory, and possessed great talent for argument and discussion. His friend d'Alembert described him as a volcano covered with snow—he was called *les humeurs froides de la philosophie*, by several distinguished members of the legislative assembly; by others, he was known under the appellation of *le mouton enragé*. He never appeared vain of his abilities, and although he must certainly be classed among men of genius, yet he was a false wit; false and ungrateful to his best friend, and a corrupt husband. He was a republican without possessing a spark of that virtue which some philosophers pretend belongs to the name; his affected philosophy was a mask to conceal his thirst after power, to attain which he did not scruple to shed the blood of his patrons and friends.

CORRESPONDENCE WITH THE REVIEWERS OF THE LITERARY PANORAMA.

To the Editor of the LITERARY PANORAMA.

SIR;—My curiosity was considerably excited by an article, in the last number of your excellent publication, denominated: "Jewish "prophecy the sole criterion to distinguish "between genuine and spurious Christian "Scripture, &c. a discourse preached before "the Rev. Dr. W. Gretton, Archdeacon of "Essex, at Danbury, July 8, 1806, by Fran"cis Stone, M. A. F. S. A. Rector of Cold "Norton, Essex."

In consequence of your report upon some of the extraordinary tenets laid down in this discourse, I was desirous to satisfy my own mind on the subject, and sent to my bookseller's for a copy. A perusal of it too soon convinced me of the justness of your statement; but you must allow me to add, it also led me, in some measure, to condemn the manner in which you had treated it. Irony, Sir, is, no doubt, on many occasions, an admirable weapon, skilfully employed, to mark vanity and presumption with derision and contempt. But the unexampled circumstance, that a minister of our excellent establishment—who must have repeatedly declared his assent to its Articles—who holds a situation of emolument in the church by that assent—and who had been "nominated by the favour of archidiaconal appointment"—an appointment that surely implies the most sacred confidence—to the high and honourable office of addressing his clerical brethren at a visitation—had actually embraced that solemn occasion to abuse the sacred trust reposed in him, and to insult such an audience, by denouncing as false many of the most awful doctrines he had been thus called upon to defend; and afterwards, with an unblushing and persevering self-confidence had proclaimed his principles to the world—I say, such a fact bespeaks a species and a degree of effrontery, that overpowers every other feeling by the astonishment and indignation it excites. Such sentiments, Sir, I conceive, must be still more deeply impressed on the mind of every man who shall pursue the unconnected series of *false* and *unwarrantable conclusions*; of *unsupported* and *contradictory assertions*; of *absurd* and *irreverent arguments*; with which this epitome of Mr. Stone's divinity abounds.

In what manner* the preaching of this new apostle was received by his auditors, I have never heard; nor do I know whether the publication of his tenets has been discussed by any able pen. I therefore beg leave, in the mean time, to suggest, that whoever will examine what Mr. S. calls his "five synonimous citations," including his text, as they are found in the Gospels, and compare them respectively with the context (a trouble which, from his not thinking it "*necessary* to cite chapter and verse," Mr. Stone evidently intended his readers should not take), will easily and immediately detect the false and daring conclusion he has drawn.

I would also, in refutation of Mr. Stone's sophistry upon the subject, recommend any one of the sound, learned, and ingenious defences of the doctrine of the Holy Trinity, as founded upon and proved by Scripture, with which our church happily abounds, and, in reply to his absurd cavils and remarks on the awful doctrines of the Atonement and Intercession made by our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, and in complete vindication of our faith in those doctrines, I would refer the reader, as grounds of immediate and entire conviction, to the concluding verses of the 9th chapter of St. Paul's Epistle to the Hebrews, and the eighteen first verses of the 10th—passages which, from his professed veneration for that great Apostle, Mr. S. must, at least, admit to be high authority; but which, upon his present principles, he will find it impossible to understand or explain,—unless he should suddenly discover, by the mere strength of his own penetration (as in another instance), that the above passages are "a corruption," "foisted in,"—or that the two whole chapters (like others in which he has found insurmountable objections to his system), are "interpolated forgeries." Indeed, upon this principle, and with the licence he has assumed of cutting and paring

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* Since writing the above, I have been informed, on indisputable authority, that some of the clergy rose up and left the church during the delivery of this sermon.

down the Gospels to the standard of his own faith (since what he has spared is equally subversive of his arguments and his assertions), it is almost surprising he should have denounced so little.

Allow me now, Mr. Editor, through the channel of your publication, and not without an expression of sincere concern, to suggest two questions for the serious consideration of Mr. Stone himself:—First, whether, admitting his own entire conviction (upon whatever groundless reasoning and perverted misconception it may rest) of his own principles, he does conscientiously imagine, that he has adopted the most decent and becoming mode of declaring his utter renunciation of some of the fundamental Articles of that Church, to which, in consequence of his former assent, and by his present office, he belongs? And next, whether the anxious desire he professes for the conversion of Jews, Deists, and Mahometans, really justifies, even to his own mind, the means he has taken—the arguments he has used—and the great offence he has given.—I am, Sir, &c. A.B.

We are much obliged to the writer of the foregoing letter; to another correspondent, who signs *Christianus*; and to several other friends, who have hinted their fears that the irony we employed as the most effectual manner of exposing the doctrines avowed by Mr. Stone, should be misunderstood, and offence be taken at it.

If any offence really has been taken, we are truly sorry; for we think the present circumstances of the Church of England imperiously demand a decided avowal from every friend to the truths of the Gospel: and we say explicitly, let the Church either suppress (which God forbid!) the doctrines of the Articles, of the Homilies, those too much neglected documents, and of the most venerable the Reformers, or suppress, effectually too, such doctrines as her degenerate sons disseminate.

Ignavum fucos pecus à præsepibus arcent.

As things stand, we see no other alternative: the essence of Christianity is at stake; the subject is truly serious, and the information which from our office has reached us, imparts a consequence to it, much beyond what appears on the mere surface of the thing.

We can only account for the total absence of notice (in every letter we have received) of an argument against Mr. S's. sentiments, inserted in Panorama, p. 543; by supposing, that our third Number had not then reached our worthy correspondents. They will see in that page, that we have not omitted a *serious* view of the subject. Will they also pardon us, if we assume just so much knowledge of the human heart, as might induce us to adopt that method of rendering the subject notorious, which appeared to be best adapted to its end: and which, in fact, has answered its purpose most effectually.

DIDASCALIA.

DRURY-LANE THEATRE.

A new melo-drama, in three acts, called *Tekeli*, or *the Siege of Montgatz*, appeared on the 25th November, it is the production of Mr. Hook, jun.; the musick composed by his father.—The scene lies in Hungary, and the story relates chiefly to the hard fortunes of Count Tekeli, who, oppressed by the Emperor, is obliged to fly into Turkey, in hopes of assistance from the Grand Signior, leaving the castle of Montgatz to the care of Alexina his wife, who, for a time, makes an heroic stand against the Imperialists; but pressed by the want of stores, ammunition, &c is on the point of surrendering, when a hope arises that her husband is on his return. Tekeli, attended by his trusty friend Woolf, reaches, indeed, the forest near Montgatz, which is strictly guarded by the Imperial troops, where at length, worn out with hunger and fatigue, they are relieved by some peasants going to celebrate a wedding, who convey them to a neighbouring mill. The miller receives them warmly, but a detachment of guards arriving, Tekeli discovers himself to the miller, who, though a large reward is offered for the apprehension of Tekeli, remains faithful to his promise of concealing him. Various stratagems are devised for that purpose, and for conveying Tekeli into the castle; which they at length succeed in, by conveying him in a sack over the Torsa. The Austrian General, Count Caraffa arrives at the mill soon after, and the miller discloses the whole truth in defiance of all punishment. The return of Tekeli reanimates the spirits of Alexina, a sally is made against the enemy, and the piece concludes with a grand engagement of the armies, in which Caraffa is defeated.

The stratagems to favour the escape of Tekeli from the search of the Austrians, are well managed and afford much interest, and combined with the pleasing scenery are likely to make the piece a favorite with the public.

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On Wednesday, Dec. 11, a new farce, under the title of *Mr. H—*, was brought forward at this Theatre; the principal wit of which consists in *Mr. H—'s* endeavouring to conceal his name upon all occasions, from an affectation of modesty, and at last inadvertently letting it out to be *Mr. Hogsflesh!*

We shall make no remarks on this unlucky

production, as it totally failed. The prologue, which was well delivered by Mr. Elliston, deserved a better connection than its alliance with this swinish family.

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Dec. 18, the comedy of *The Will* was represented for the purpose of introducing Miss Ray, in the character of Albina, which she performed with spirit and ease. Her reception was flattering, and she will no doubt become a very favourite actress, when she is more conversant with those nice and delicate discriminations peculiar to a London theatre. She is very young, has a pleasing person, and her countenance is engaging and expressive.

COVENT-GARDEN THEATRE.

On Thursday, the 20th November, was performed a "new grand operatical entertainment" announced in the bills as having been in prepartion all the summer, called *The Deserts of Arabia*, said to be the production of Mr. Reynolds.—The following is a sketch of the fable.—A rich widow of Bassora offers her hand to the son of a merchant at Aleppo, on condition that he crosses the Deserts to join her, and the avarice of his Father obliges him to accept the invitation though against his inclination, having formed an attachment to an Arabian girl. He sets out on his journey together with an English strolling-player, disguised as the servants and under the guidance of the Grand Sultan's messenger. On their way across the Desert the merchant's son meets with his mistress, whose father has the charge of attending the sacred lamps that burn around the shrine of the Prophet, but being old and infirm entrusts the care of them for one night to his daughter, who is so overjoyed by the arrival of her lover that she neglects to replenish them and the lights expire. This subjects the father to the punishment of death, and the officers arriving at that time and finding the state of the temple proceed to inflict the penalty, by chaining himself and his daughter to a rock and there leaving them to starve. The travellers proceed on to Bassora, and upon their arrival there the rich widow proves to be the run-away wife of the player. The merchant finding his plans thus defeated consents to his son's union with the Arabian girl, and the party again set out to release the father and daughter from their distressing situation, having procured a pardon for their offence.——The absurdities in this piece are numerous and extravagant, such for instance as a poor English strolling-player going to Bengal in search of his wife, and travelling, as the cheapest way, by Aleppo and across the Deserts of Arabia. The music is in the Italian style and some of the airs are pleasing, but the recitatives and chorusses are better adapted to the Opera-house than to an English theatre. The dialogue is indifferent. The chief merit consists in the scenery, dresses, and decorations.

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THE TEMPEST.

"When learning's triumph o'er her barb'rous foes
First rear'd the stage, immortal Shakespeare rose;
Each change of many-colour'd life he drew,
Exhausted worlds and then imagin'd new:
Existence saw him spurn her bounded reign,
And panting Time toil'd after him in vain;
His powerful strokes presiding truth impress'd,
And unresisting passion storm'd the breast.

"Shakespeare has made the plot of the Tempest instrumental to the production of many characters, diversified with boundless invention, and preserved with profound skill in nature, extensive knowledge of opinions, and accurate observation of life. In a single drama are here exhibited princes, courtiers, and sailors, all speaking in their real characters. There is the agency of airy spirits, and of an earthly goblin. The operations of magic, the tumults of a storm, the adventures of a desert island, the native effusion of untaught affection, the punishment of guilt, and the final happiness of the pair for whom our passions and reason are equally interested."

So the celebrated Dr. Sam. Johnson described Shakespeare, and such were his allusions to that delightful drama The Tempest; what then, gentle readers, will you say, when informed, that on Monday December 8, was "*revived, with* ADDITIONS," as the bills of the day announced, "*Shakespear's play of the Tempest?*" This novelty augmented by the attractions of new dresses, decorations, scenery, and machinery, with the performance of Ariel by a young lady who had never appeared on any stage, could not fail of insuring a full house. Of the *additions*, some were the flimsy alterations of Dryden; and some by an invisible hand—for who will be *modest* enough to come forward, and openly assert his ability of making ADDITIONS to Shakespeare, particularly, as Warburton remarks, "to the *noblest* efforts of that sublime and amazing imagination, peculiar to himself, which soars above the bounds of nature without forsaking sense; or, more properly, carries nature along with him, beyond her established limits?"

Our readers will anticipate us in acknowledging, that, on the present occasion, "Tis not well mended so: it is but botch'd." And indeed the botcher has contrived to descend as many degrees below Dryden, as Dryden was below Shakespeare—indelicacy and a trifling tediousness were the characteristics of what was vainly supposed to make up the *deficiencies* of our immortal bard. This attempt has afforded us one more proof to what degree his beautiful works may be disfigured, mangled, and degraded. Several have laboured to *improve* the Tempest; but all have

failed. Fletcher,* Sir John Suckling, † and Dryden; to whom we must now add the present improvementmonger. Dryden introduced two new characters (Hyppolito and Dorinda) and greatly curtailed the old ones.

Our comic friend Trinculo (now called the *King's* jester, and dressed *à la Touchstone*) omitted the pleasant remarks on English curiosity, when he first discovers Caliban.‡ We suppose it was left out, like many other passages, to make room for the ADDITIONS. And indeed, we despaired of hearing those lines which have never been equalled by "Frenchman, Grecian, or Roman"—we mean "the cloud capt towers, &c." which were not given till near the close of the fifth act, although Shakespeare placed them in the beginning of the fourth:—when Mr. Kemble had finished delivering them—the auditors gave three distinct plaudits; at once evincing their attachment to their national poet, with their contempt for the alterations.

Great dissatisfaction was shewn by the audience at the silly and indecent scenes introduced, to the exclusion of so many passages of Shakespeare's writing; in the fifth act their disapprobation was expressed in the most decided manner. We hope therefore the managers will listen to reason—and banish this strange jumble, with all its family, from the stage, and give us Shakespeare himself, in his original beauty and magnificence, assisted solely by *Purcell*, *Arne*, and *Linley*, not that we have any objection to Mr. Davy's overture, in which he has shewn his taste and respect for the trio, by introducing their music into it. The scenes and decorations are splendid, and deserve applause particularly the last: yet we could have wished to have beheld some of them more appropriate to the *Summer Islands* §—not chilling us with the bleakness of a desert.

The young lady, who performed the part of Ariel, is, we understand, a Miss Meadows. She possseses a pretty little figure, and a good voice; she gave her songs with much science, particularly, "Where the bee sucks," in which she was encored; and repeated it with thrice the effect she did the first time. She appeared perfectly at ease, and her action had more the manner of the Italian stage than the English. She is a pupil of Mr. Davy.

* The Sea Voyage. † The Goblins.

‡ "Were I in England now, as once I "was, and had but this fish painted, not a "holiday fool there but would give a piece "of silver: there would this monster make "a man: any strange beast there makes a "man: when they will not give a doit to "relieve a lame beggar, they will lay out "ten to see a dead Indian!"

§ The perpetual mildness of the climate (the Bermudas) caused them to be called by an apt allusion *Summer*, as well as Somers', *Islands*.—*Brookes's Gazetteer.*

Emery acted Caliban better than we ever saw it; but the songs were far more ably given by the late Bannister. Prospero, we do not think altogether suited to Mr. Kemble, yet he gave it as much effect as the character would allow, ably preserving the dignity of Milan's Duke. We pitied Miss Logan and Mrs. C. Kemble, as it was impossible not to disapprove the ribaldries they were obliged to to utter.—Our pity extended likewise to Miss Brunton, who was forced to personate a Miranda as dissimilar to Shakespear's as "a Satyr to Hyperion;" for who, after hearing the trash she delivered, could fancy her to be the,

> Admir'd Miranda!
> Indeed the top of admiration; worth
> What's dearest to the world!
> So perfect and so peerless, — created
> Of every creature's best . . .?

Ferdinand was personated by C. Kemble—but as it is painful for us to proceed in further remarks, we shall barely add that it was not Shakespeare's Ferdinand, but Dryden's assassin, murdering his own Hyppolito!

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Thursday, Dec. 11, a new farce, called *Arbitration; or, Free and Easy*, was produced at this Theatre; the author of which, we understand, is Mr. Reynolds.—The following is the story.—Sir Toby Tritely and Lady Litigious having a law-suit about a corn-mill and other matters, their case is referred to Jack Familiar, a young barrister, for arbitration, whom Sir Toby invites to his house, in hopes of influencing his opinion. Familiar begins with setting Harriet free, whom Sir Toby (her guardian) had confined with the view of forcing her to marry Thoro. She escapes in male attire to an inn kept by Chequer, who, paying no attention to his jealous wife takes her to Lady Litigious. Her ladyship receives the unfortunate girl, with the idea of giving her to Thoro by way of liquidating a debt. Familiar, invited to Lady Litigious, meets and marries Harriet; and declares, after well examining the papers relative to the litigation, that the property does not belong to either of them, but to the humble publican Chequer.

Such is the substance of this farce, which contains some lively dialogue, and a few ludicrous and improbable incidents. It is interspersed with songs; one by Liston, about driving two trades at a time, had a very good effect;—another by Miss Tyrer, concerning her figure, was much applauded. The piece, although preceded by a prologue, the epitome of dulness, was received with great satisfaction, and passed the ordeal without opposition; for the audience, though pretty well convinced of its absurdities, rewarded the author with their applause, in return for his having made them laugh heartily.

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OPERA.—THE KING'S THEATRE

Opened for the season on Saturday the 13th of December, with the tragic opera of *Semiramide* and the ballet of *La Dansomanie*.

Madame *Catalani* made her *debut* in the Opera, the music of which was expressly composed for her by Portogallo.

This celebrated singer was preceded in England by the great reputation she had acquired in Italy, Portugal, and France. Since we have heard her, we are fully convinced that her merits are not inferior to it. No praise is above the perfections which she derives from art; no comparison can give an adequate idea of the organ with which nature has wonderfully endowed her. Besides a prodigious extent, her voice has a very peculiar character; in the three octaves which she runs over, it is always equally just, full and brilliant; it is a silvery tone that seizes the ear and vibrates long after the sound has ceased. Madame Catalani passes, without labour, over the most distant intervals, and in her boldest attempts she pleases no less than she astonishes. In *Semiramide* she does not appear till the third scene; some parts of the recitative and airs of the nine first scenes of the first act were rapturously applauded; but it was especially in the tenth scene that she united the suffrages of all, and struck every one with amazement and admiration. The air begining with *In consigliata che fo!* in which are these words *Son regina e son guerriera*, where the composer has happily expressed the pride and courage of *Semiramide*, is one of the best calculated for the display of a fine voice. Madame Catalani sung it with such an imperious accent, with so much emotion, fire and impetuosity, that the effect upon the audience was electric. By her manner of execution, those great *traits*, those exertions of voice which the composer meant only as ornament, gave additional force and expression to the music.

In the air *L'Ira Terribile*, in the second act, we were struck with the effect of the opposite expressions of terror and love, where she softly complains to the daughters of *Babylon*, expresses the torture of an unfortunate passion, and calls on death to end her miseries.

Her countenance is very expressive and her person is finely formed; but what we value in her above every thing, is, her simplicity, candour and modesty, with which we understand her manners and conduct correspond.

After having thus given our opinion of this eminent singer we may be allowed some remarks on the music of Portogallo, and then on the management of the King's Theatre.

The music of *Semiramide* is quite novel, and well adapted to the present taste of Italian and French spectators, who are now more apt to be pleased with the wonders of elaborate execution, or the exertions of supernatural powers, than with the natural, soft and expresive melody of a *cantabile*. The composers of the modern Italian School disdain the style of their predecessors: they would now make an instrument of a voice, and seem to wish rather to surprise than to please. They might be excused if their music was always sung by such voices as *Catalani*'s; but, as prodigies like this are very rare, they would do well to return to a character of music more congenial to nature; and to a composition, more conformable to the chaste, inventive, and diversified style, that will, for many centuries to come, be admired in the works of Handel, Gluck, Sacchini, and Haydn.

Respecting the management of the *King's Theatre*, we are still of opinion, that it wants great reform and improvement. There has been this year an advance in the price of the boxes; therefore the public, we mean that part of the public which resorts to this theatre, has a right to expect additional exertions from the managers. The higher orders of society who pay such large sums of money, especially, have a right to expect not to be confounded in the pit of that house with noisy prostitutes, whose indecency and effrontery put the wives and daughters of the most respectable part of the kingdom to the blush.

For several years past, there has been at this theatre in almost every branch, two or three of the best performers, for the principal parts; but the inferior parts have been very much neglected. We now see Catalani almost alone; she is very feebly supported by the other actors. Although Righi is improving fast, and will most undoubtedly be very useful, and deserve applause in secondary characters, yet we are confident that we shall not be thought too severe in saying that he is inadequate to the part he performs in *Semiramide*. The other performers are scarcely worthy any remark, except it be that every year increases their defects.

The same observations apply to the Ballet. While we are enchanted with the display of the graces and powers of the Deshayes', Parisot, and we are glad to add the Depresle, we cannot help being shocked at the awkward figures among which they are obliged to appear; and sometimes with the shabbiness of their dresses.

As to the machinery,—to the disgrace of the first stage of this great capital, there is not one of the most insignificant summer theatres, where it is not better managed—and when we compare the *tout ensemble* with the Opera of Paris, we must acknowledge, our Italian theatre is far, very far behind it.

Previous to the opening, the manager proposed to receive the subscribers' tickets on admission; and to return them to the proprietors the next morning. We consider this as a laudable attempt to ascertain the company. This, however, has failed: but—*something must be done*.

EULOGIUM OF FRANÇOIS DE SALIGNAC DE LA MOTHE FENELON, ARCHBISHOP OF CAMBRAY, &c. BY M. DE LA HARPE.

Among the celebrated persons who have a claim to public eulogium and the homage of the people, there are some whom general admiration has consecrated, whom it is impossible not to honour without being unjust, and who present themselves to posterity surrounded with all the imposing attributes of greatness. There are others who are still more fortunate, who awaken in the heart the more flattering and dearer sentiments of love, whose name cannot be pronounced without a tender sensibility, whom to forget is to be guilty of ingratitude; to exalt whose character is an object of emulation, not so much from the impulse of justice, as to receive the pleasure of being grateful; and who, so far from losing any thing in passing over the track of ages, collect new honours in their passage, and will present themselves to the latest posterity preceded by the acclamations of every people, and laden with the tribute of every age.

Such are the characters of that glory which surrounds with its lustre the amiable and benevolent virtues, and the talents which inspire them; such were those of Fenelon, whose praise will be welcome to every class of men, and whose panegyrist will be anticipated in all he can say by the sensibility of those who hear him. I shall say to men of letters, he possessed the ardent eloquence of the soul, blended with the simplicity of the ancients;—to the ministers of the church, he was the father and the model of those committed to his charge;—to controversialists, he submits his opinions to authority;—to courtiers, he never flattered to obtain favour, and was happy during his disgrace;—to the instructors of Kings, the nation expected to derive its happiness from the Prince whom he had educated;—to all mankind, he was virtuous, and he was beloved. His works consisted of Lessons given by a great genius, who was the friend of humanity, to the heir of a great empire. I shall connect the history of his writings with the August Education which was the object of them; I shall follow him from glory to disgrace, from the court to Cambray; I shall attend him on the theatre of his pastoral and his domestic virtues; and I shall begin with remarking, as a most uncommon circumstance, that the honour of being numbered among the first writers of France, which has satisfied the ambition of so many great men, was the least of those which dignified and adorned the character of Fenelon.

Among the advantages which such a man might owe to nature or to fortune, it would be superfluous to reckon that of birth. It was for him to throw a brighter lustre round his ancestors than he could receive from them. The most fortunate chance that could happen for him was, to be born in an age when he could take his proper place in the world. That tender and amiable mind, which was entirely filled with an idea of the happiness which might be procured to civilized nations by the cultivation of social virtue, the sacrifice of interest, and the management of the passions, would have been but ill suited to the times of ignorance and barbarism, when pre-eminence originated solely in the strength which oppresses, and the policy which deceives. His voice would have been lost among the clamours of a rude multitude, and in the tumult of a boisterous court. His talents would then have been buried or despised; but nature produced him at a period of light and splendor. After he had completed his studies, which had already announced what he would one day be, and had been admitted to the priesthood, he appeared at the court of Louis XIV. It was then the most brilliant epocha of France: the monarch, surrounded by all the arts, was worthy of their homage, and presented his reign to them as a subject for their labours.

Fenelon, who displayed to the most polished court of Europe, superior talents, gentle manners, and the indulgent virtues, was most favourably received by all those who themselves possessed a sufficient degree of merit to be sensible of that which he possessed, and attracted the notice of a master, whose observation no merit ever escaped. At the age of nineteen years, he made his first essay in the eloquence of the pulpit, and succeeded even after Bourdaloue and Bossuet. So great was his success, that his uncle, the Marquis de Fenelon, a man of rigid manners, but universally respected for a characteristic probity, entertained an apprehension that the young apostle might be seduced by popular applause; and therefore obliged him to confine himself to the more obscure functions of a profession, whose duties, however they may vary, are equally sacred. This first trial of obedience might be painful to a young man at the opening of such a career, but it soon yielded to the natural docility of his temper. He passed through all his religious exercises, under the direction of the Superior of St. Sulpice; but all those who saw him obey, were convinced that he would soon be qualified to command, and an office was confided to his youth, which appeared to demand the maturity of age to fulfil—it was that of Superior of the new catholics. They were, for the most part, young female converts, who were to be confirmed in a faith which was not that of their parents. It was impossible to have chosen a person more admirably suited than himself to such an em-

ployment. No one was more qualified than he was to temper the austerity of his mission, and to adapt it to the delicate feelings of women, with whom the gift of persuasion cannot be well separated from that of pleasing, and to whom the divine legislator of the gospel always addressed the words of grace, of mercy, and of peace. Then it was that he composed, *le Traité de l'Education des Filles*, and *le Ministère des Pasteurs*, which were the first productions of his pen. The fame of his labours reached Louis XIV., who was greatly delighted with his success, as he thought his glory was interested in effacing every vestige of the Calvinistic religion.—It is, indeed, with regret, we mention the odious violence exercised against peaceable subjects, and whom a vigilant authority might have preserved in a due state of restraint, without employing the spirit of persecution.—In deploring these abuses, I do not impute them to the prince from whom they were concealed, nor to religion which disavows them, nor to the nation which condemns them.—It is my wish to pass on to another subject, but I must not omit to mention one of the finest circumstances of the life of Fenelon; that which first unfolded the goodness of his character, and the superiority of his understanding..

The king sent him on a mission into Saintonge and Aunis; a mission which was to be supported by force of arms and escorted by soldiers: so common is it to be humane from character, and cruel from policy. Others knew as well as Fenelon the rights of humanity; but he alone appears to have defended it.—That barren pity which laments the unfortunate whom it abandons, was not his; a profound and enlightened sensibility which when it operates on moral conduct, becomes a sublime Reason, elevated him above the policy of the moment, and unfolded to him the miserable consequences of this system of oppression. He declared that, he would not charge himself with the duty of promulgating the divine word, with any other supports than those of charity, which is the principle of it, and that he would not speak in the name of his God and his King, but to inspire the love of both of them. This truly christian courage rendered him superior both to power and to prejudice; and thus two provinces were preserved from that scourge of persecution which overwhelmed so many others. He alone offered to religion such conquests as were worthy of her and of himself.

To a virtuous man, the greatest recompense which he can receive after the testimony of his own heart, is the friendship of those who resemble him: and it was the tribute which Fenelon received on his re-appearance at Versailles. The Beauvilliers, the Chevreuses, the Langerons, considered it as an honour to be ranked among his friends. Superior minds judge each other, understand each other, and seek each other. Content with their regard, and happy in their society, Fenelon paid no attention whatever, to the means of advancing himself in the career of ecclesiastical dignity.—He was too deserving of such advancement to intrigue for it. It is very rare that those who have favours to bestow, though they are ready to acknowledge merit, forestall its solicitation. Vanity must have its followers, and interest its creatures. Fenelon, recommended by the public voice, was on the point of being named to the bishopric of Poitiers; but his competitors employed those arts to turn aside that appointment, which he disclaimed, in order to support it.—He was therefore passed by; but there was immediately opened for him another field of honourable and important labour. The education of the grandson of Louis XIV. became an object of rivalry among those of the most distinguished merit at the court of Versailles. Beauvilliers who was the governor of the young prince, naturally desired such an associate as Fenelon. Louis XIV. listened to Beauvilliers, and Fenelon was called to the duty of forming a king.

Pride might have been flattered by such a choice, and ambition might have swelled at the attainment of it. Far more pure and noble are the sentiments that Fenelon experienced. That refined spirit ever glowing with the desire to do good, was now engaged to labour for the happiness of a great people. Elevated by the hope of succeeding in this great work, he entered, with the highest satisfaction, on the laborious functions which were to occupy his life. To be annihilated as to himself, and to be solely devoted to his pupil, never to utter a word which might not prove a lesson, never to take a step which might not be an example to conciliate the respect due to a child which would one day be a king; with the yoke he must impose to teach him to be so; to inform him of his greatness, but, at the same time, to trace out its duties and to destroy its pride; to combat the propensities which flattery engenders, and the vices which seduction fortifies;—to overawe by firmness and conciliating manners the sentiment of independence so natural in a prince, to guide his sensibility and to prevent it from becoming a weakness; to blame him without losing his confidence, to punish him sometimes without losing his friendship; to impress continually on his mind the essential difference between what he can do, and what he ought to do; between his power and his duty, and never to deceive his scholar, the state, nor his own conscience. Such are the duties which that man imposed on himself; to whom the monarch said, 'I give, you

my son,'—and to whom the people say 'give us a father.'

To these general difficulties were added the particular obstacles which arose out of the character of the young prince. With many promising qualities, he had all those defects which are peculiarly obnoxious to discipline. A natural haughtiness, which considers remonstrance as offensive, and becomes indignant at contradiction; a violent and unequal temper, which sometimes broke forth into passion, and sometimes appeared as caprice, with a secret disposition to despise mankind, which was continually discovering itself. Such were the obstacles which the preceptor had to encounter, and perhaps, he alone was qualified to surmount them. Fenelon could not be too severe, and he would not be too indulgent. He well knew that, in the human character there is an irresistible impulse, whose active principle cannot be destroyed, but which may be turned into a proper channel, and directed to a right object. The Duke of Burgundy possessed an imperious disposition, and delighted in the idea of dominion; but his master succeeded in rendering it subservient to the purposes of humanity and virtue. Without being very pointed in censuring his pupil's notion that he was born to command, he made him comprehend that his self-love proposed but very little, when it suggested nothing better than an empire to which he succeeded as a mere inheritance, and as every one succeeds to the patrimony of his ancestors, while there is another empire made for privileged spirits, and founded on the talents which are admired and the virtues which are adored. Thus he got possession of that mind, whose impetuous sensibility wanted a right direction. He infatuated him, as it were, with the pleasure which flows from being loved; with that noble power which is exercised in doing good, and with that rare glory which consists in commanding oneself. Whenever the Prince was carried away by passion, of which he was too susceptible, the tempestuous moment, when reason spoke in vain, was suffered to pass away, and all those who approached his person had orders to serve him in silence, and with a melancholy aspect: even his exercises were suspended: it appeared that no one dared to communicate with him, and that he was no longer thought worthy of any rational occupation. In a short time, the young man, terrified at his solitude, troubled at the dread which he seemed to inspire, would ask pardon and beg to be reconciled to himself. It was then that the able master, availing himself of his advantages, made the Prince feel the disgraceful effects of his violent temper, and convinced him what a sad thing it is to be an object of fear and to be surrounded with consternation. His paternal voice penetrated a heart open to truth and to contrition, and the tears of his royal disciple bedewed his hands. It was in the very soul of the Prince that he found the arms with which he combated his errors. He enlightened him by the testimony of his own conscience, and never punished him, but by making him ashamed of himself. This is, doubtless the most salutary kind of chastisement.—The humiliation which proceeds from another is an outrage;—that which arises from ourselves is penitentiary instruction.—One of the secrets of the preceptor was to appear to treat him as a man and never as a child. Much is gained by giving to youth a high opinion of what it can do: It very readily believes you when it is treated with respect: that age has all the candour of self-love without its suspicions. When, to cares so wisely applied and so constantly pursued, we join the attractive, gentle and softening manners of Fenelon, his unalterable patience, the flexibility of his zeal, and his inexhaustible resources when in the work of instruction; we shall not be surprised at the astonishing change which was observed in the young prince, who afterwards became the idol of the court, and the nation. If we could awake from the sleep of the tomb the generations, which are buried there, they would give a portrait of this prince, which would in reality, be the eulogium of Fenelon. "It is the "Prince," they would say, "whose infan- "cy filled us with alarm, whose youth re- "stored our hopes, whose maturity trans- "ported us with admiration, and whose too "early death has cost us so many tears. "He it was whom we have seen so gracious "and so accessible in his court; so full of "compassion for the unfortunate; adored in "his palace; the friend of order, of peace, "and of the laws.—He it was, who when "he commanded armies, was the father of "his soldiers; consoled them in their fati- "gues, and visited them in their sickness. "He it was whose mind was open to the "attraction of the fine arts, and to the illu- "mination of science; who was the bene- "factor of La Fontaine.—He it was whom "we have seen shed tears over the public "miseries, and who promised us a future "reparation for them. Alas! we have shed "our own too soon over his ashes; and when "Louis XIV. was afflicted by so many fatal "wounds, given, at the same time, to his "posterity, we beheld the tomb open to re- "ceive the hope of France, and the work of "Fenelon."

To complete the eulogium of the master and of the scholar, we must add the tender attachment which united them to each other, and continued till death closed it for ever. The Duke of Burgundy always regarded his preceptor as his friend and his father. It is impossible to peruse the letters which they

wrote to each other, without being deeply affected. As he advanced in years and his power of reflection encreased, the Prince profoundly weighed the principles of government which his education had instilled into his mind; and it is generally believed, that, if he had reigned, the moral system of Fenelon would have formed the politics of the throne.

That system is to be found, in all its various branches, in the *Dialogues of the Dead*, a work full of wise observations on history, and the most perfect notions of the administration of governments; in *the Directions for the Conscience of a King*, which may be called a summary of wisdom, and the catechism of Princes; but above all, in *Telemachus*, the *chef-d'œuvre* of his genius, one of the original works of a former century; one that has added above all others, to the character and embellishment of the French language, and has placed Fenelon among the most celebrated writers of France.

Its success was without example, and it did not require those malignant observations which encreased the public avidity to possess it, and left on the mind of Louis XIV. impressions which were never effaced. France received it with enthusiasm, and foreigners were eager to translate it into their respective languages. Though it appears to have been written for the instruction of youth, and particularly, for that of a Prince; it is, nevertheless, a book for all ages and every understanding. Never were the riches of antiquity and the treasures of imagination so well employed: never did virtue speak such an enchanting language to mankind. There did Fenelon display to the greatest advantage that kind of eloquence which is peculiar to himself, that penetrating unction, that persuasive elocution, that abundant sentiment which flows from the soul of the author, and passes into ours; that amenity of style which always flatters the ear and never fatigues it; those harmonious periods which appear to be no more than the natural flow of his discourse and the common accents of his thoughts; that diction always elegant and pure which elevates without effort, and is empassioned without affectation and without labour; those antique forms which at once enrich without changing the character of the French language. In short, that charming facility, one of the finest characteristics of genius, which produces great things without labour, and diffuses itself all around without being exhausted.

Every kind of beauty which prose composition is capable of receiving is to be found in Telemachus. The interest of the fable, the art of distribution, the choice of episodes, the truth of characters, the dramatic and affecting scenes, the rich and picturesque descriptions, and those sublime passages, so happily placed, and so naturally applied, that they transport the soul without astonishing it.

He had formed his taste on that of the ancients; that is to say, his mind was so tempered, as to be analogous to that of the best writers in Greece and Rome. If indeed, we attentively examine into this congeniality of character between the author of Telemachus and his illustrious models, we shall find that it consists of an exquisite sensibility of the heart and the organs; which yielding at once to the impression of objects, gives them again exactly as they were received, without increase, diminution or change; which will drop a tear at the gentlest cry, at the most tranquil accent of nature, but will preserve a dry eye at all the contorsions of art. It is that which made the verses of Racine, which gives such a charm to the tender effusions of Tibullus, and even to the negligence of Chaulieu; in short, it is that which communicates to the writings of Fenelon, those soft and pleasing colours which continually invite us back to their enjoyment, as we are recalled to a society which charms us, or to a friend who consoles us.

The discourse which he pronounced in the Academy, when he was received among its members; the letter which he addressed to it on the subject of poetry; the dialogues upon eloquence; are so many monuments of sublime literature and the most luminous criticism. It is impossible to read them without being enamoured of the ancients, of poetry and the arts, and above all, without being enamoured of him. But Telemachus is not an epic poem, as some, in the ardor of their zeal and their feelings, have considered it. Let us not confound the limits assigned to the arts; and let us remember that prose is never the language of the poet. It is sufficient for the glory of Fenelon that it may be the language of genius.

Telemachus, which, like all his other writings, was purloined as it were, from the modesty of the author, gave him a renown which he made no efforts to obtain. The Archbishopric of Cambray, which he had not solicited, placed him among the Princes of the Church, and the education of the Duke of Burgundy, among the benefactors of the state, when a deplorable war, rendered famous by his name, broke forth to trouble his happy and brilliant career, to fill his heart with sorrow and his days with bitterness.

Let us pause for a moment, before we enter into these sad details, and consider the lot of humanity. How was it possible that a man so beloved, and so worthy of it should meet with persecutors? Never, oh never, hereafter, let mortal man flatter himself with the hope of escaping from envy and from hatred for envy and hatred did not spare Fenelon.—

But do we forget that disgrace is ever at the heels of greatness? Let us not be too eager to lament; when we shall see him combating with misfortune, we shall have another motive to love and admire him.

A religion which at once elevates and softens; the only one which teaches us to know and to love God, which sufficiently attests that it alone emanates from him, naturally begets a holy enthusiasm in ardent minds and warm imaginations; hence have arisen those numerous prodigies of zeal, of constancy, and courage, which have appeared in those hermits, martyrs, and missionaries, who have been all equally animated with the generous desire of procuring to others that happiness which it was the business of their lives to estimate, and to preach to mankind. But all things, however pure or excellent they may be, are capable of being abused. Innovators are generally led astray by their pride; Fenelon, at least, could not err but by the impulse of his sensibility. It was his object that men should love God, as he is loved by the angels; and he seems to have forgotten, in the amiable spirituality of his character, that the recompense which is promised to us in an eternal world, cannot be enjoyed in that temporal state in which we live here below.—This was doubtless an error which he himself afterwards acknowledged; an error which he repaired by his submission, and could proceed only from an excess of spiritual love. That was the essence of Fenelon. His religion was love and friendship itself, all charming and beautiful as it is, when combined with virtue, not being able to satisfy his inexhaustible sensibility, it sought an immortal object, and these divine contemplations formed a continual desire to anticipate that future state where he might love God, *without interest and without fear*. Such was his error which carries its excuse along with it, and, from his edifying submission became a new triumph to him.

Read in Telemachus his description of the Elysian fields, and it will appear with what facility he transports himself into a new order of things. It is the master-piece of an empassioned imagination. The expressions of it seem to be superior to the language of man: it is a picture of happiness which does not belong to an inhabitant of the earth, and which cannot be conceived or felt but by an immortal nature. In reading it we are borne aloft to the heavens, and breathe, as it were, the air of immortality. Those who have observed, that every one has succeeded in painting hell, and that no one has succeeded in representing heaven, have only to look on the Elysium of Telemachus, and they will at least find one exception.

His memory is also rendered interesting as well as our admiration excited by the contrast of his conduct with that of many of his adversaries. In the memoirs of the age in which we live, we perceive the champions of Port Royal, tired out with the long and painful contest, in which they revenged themselves by the fame of their writings, or the Anathemas of Rome and the animadversions of Government, artfully contrive to retire from the lists, to alarm religion and the court with a growing heresy, which most certainly did not resemble theirs. They armed the secret jealousy of all those who repined at the elevation of the Archbishop of Cambray; Mme. de Maintenon was influenced on the occasion, who certainly ought not to have engaged in discussions of theology. This cunning favourite, possessing a delicate mind, but a feeble character; who had more vanity than ambition, and more ambition than sensibility; who could neither be happy at court, nor venture to quit it; more jealous of governing the king than the state; this woman whose destiny was very remarkable, without leaving a brilliant name, had loved Fenelon as she had loved Racine, and abandoned them both. Nay, she did more, for she supported those who solicited at Rome the condemnation of the Archbishop: perhaps she was mortified at not having acquired all the ascendency over his mind and opinion which she had pretended to possess; or she had not sufficient resolution to oppose Louis XIV, who was then guided by Bossuet, the Bishop of Meaux. At that respected name, at that name which cannot be confounded with the throng of Fenelon's enemies, let us cast aside the injurious ideas, which in our days, could alone proceed from the hatred of religion, when his inflexible zeal for the purity of its doctrine, has been misrepresented as proceeding from a violent spirit both in his writing, and his conduct. Is it permitted to ransack the heart of a great man, in the hope of finding sentiments there, which would tarnish his memory, by belying his life and his principles? No, it is not in Bossuet that genius can become the persecutor of virtue: he could only be the enemy of error. No, Bossuet who had seen the young Fenelon rise into distinction, and had beheld the advancement of his fortune and his fame; who had himself ordained him to the episcopal dignity, could not view him with the eyes of a rival, after he had so long regarded him with the eyes of a father. He might be, as he ought to have been, alarmed at the dangerous illusions of a minister of the church, and of a Fenelon: but he could feel no alarm at his success and his renown. We should remember that he ranked too high as an orator and a writer to descend so far as to suffer any impressions of jealousy. If he sought the condemnation of those errors into which

Fenelon had fallen, it was with the spirit of an apostle, and not with the animosity of a rival; and when he demanded pardon of Louis XIV, for not having sooner disclosed to him an heresy more dangerous even than Calvinism, he was influenced by the pious fears of a Christian and a Bishop, and not by the ambition of a courtier. Nor ought we to attribute to him the secret dispositions of the monarch, who, having no judgment in matters of this nature, was probably less offended by the *Maxims of the Saints*,* than the maxims of Telemachus, many of which might appear as reproaches to him: but of which he himself, in his last hours, confessed the truth.

But if we are compelled to esteem in Bossuet that pious ardour, that inexorable zeal, which predominated so powerfully in his character; we must at the same time cherish in Fenelon, the moderation of his defence, the sincerity of his submission and the humility of his defeat. At the same time that he persevered in disavowing the consequences that were supposed to result from his principles; while he persisted in the refusal of a recantation which would prevent his disgrace, he declared, that, though he did not think it his duty to yield to his enemies, who appeared to him incapable of interpreting his thoughts, he should not resist the authority of the Holy See, which possessed the right to judge them. For that judgment he waited with a profound resignation: he neither complained of the invectives that were blended with the refutations of his opponents, nor of the stratagems that were employed to effect his ruin: for all his antagonists were not as pure in their views as Bossuet; and did not confine themselves to the legitimate arms which he used. As for himself he never enlisted the passions in his service: while he prohibited his agent at the court of Rome from availing himself of any discoveries he might have made of the intrigues of his enemies, or above all, of employing the same means. He writes to Beauvilliers,—"If the Pope condemns me, I shall "be undeceived: if he does not condemn "me, I shall endeavour, by my silence and "my respect, to appease those of my bre"thren, who are exasperated against me."—At length Louis XIV. let loose his anger, the services of Fenelon were forgotten, and he received orders to quit the court and retire to Cambray. His friends were exiled and his relations deprived of their employments. The sentence of condemnation against him was urged at Rome with uncommon zeal; but it was obtained with great difficulty, and the judges pronounced it with equal regret, and with some exceptions that were favourable to him; so that his enemies did not appear to think their triumph compleat. They did not then know that they were preparing one for him that they might envy, and to which nothing but imitators was wanting. At a time when a spirit of discord and of resistance prevailed in the church; when on all sides were seen examples of revolt and none of obedience, Fenelon ascended the pulpit, announced that he was condemned, and that he submitted, and invited all the people of his diocese to follow the example of his submission. He then published that mandatory letter, which has been preserved to us, as a model of impressive eloquence and evangelic simplicity. This act of resignation consisting of a few lines, and contained in one page, has well deserved to escape that oblivion which has overwhelmed those innumerable volumes, the monuments of controversy and polemic rage, which have done so much injury to religion, without a casual atom of real good; whereas, it may be said with truth, that if it pleased God to employ a miracle to bring to the faith all the rest of the earth; if we may presume to use the expression, let him be graciously pleased, frequently to renew the example and the virtues of Fenelon.

Bossuet, after his victory, passed for the most learned and the most orthodox Bishop of the Roman Catholic church; Fenelon, after his defeat, for the most unpresuming and amiable of men. Bossuet continued to be admired at court; Fenelon to be adored at Cambray, and throughout Europe. Perhaps this is the proper place to make a comparison between the talents and the reputation of two men equally celebrated and equally immortal. It may be said that both of them were endued with superior genius; but that the one had more of that grandeur which elevates, and of that strength which overpowers; while the other possessed more of that softness which penetrates, and that charm which conciliates. One was the oracle of established doctrines, the other that of christian ethics: but it appears that Bossuet, in conquering for the faith, in thundering against heresy, was not less occupied with his own personal triumphs than those of christianity; while it appears, on the contrary, that Fenelon spoke of virtue as we speak of what we love; embellishing it without the least consciousness of what he had effected, and always forgetting himself, without any impression of his having made a sacrifice. Their labours, also, were as different as their characters. Bossuet born for the combats of the mind and the victories of the understanding, preserved even in his writings of a different kind, that bold and nervous expression, that vigorous argument, that rapidity of ideas, those strong and ardent figures, which are the arms of language. Fenelon, formed to love peace and to inspire it, preserved his gentle nature, even in contro-

* A theological work of Fenelon.

versy, and appeared to have united, in his style, all the secret powers of persuasion. The claims of Bossuet on posterity, are chiefly derived from his funeral orations and his discourse on history: but Bossuet as an historian and orator, may meet with rivals; while Telemachus stands by itself, and nothing can be brought in competition with it. To the work intitled *Les Variations*, &c. containing his warfare against heresy, may be opposed the volume, *sur l'Existence de Dieu*, expressly written to combat atheism, a fatal and destructive doctrine, which tears from misery its consolation, from virtue its immortality; freezes the heart of the good man, by depriving him of his witness and friend; and renders justice only to the wicked, whom it annihilates.

This work on the Existence of God unites all the proofs of it; but the best of them is the author himself. Such a mind is in itself an incontrovertible evidence, that there is something worthy of an eternal existence. It was during the time he resided at Cambray, which was called his exile, as if the seat of our duty could be a place of exile; it was then that he displayed, in a peculiar manner, all those personal qualities, which rendered him truly worthy the title of Shepherd of the People, which was formerly given to Kings. It has been said, indeed, that he regretted the court.—Nor is it improbable, that, tenderly attached as he was to the young prince, as well as to those friends whom he had chosen, and whose regard he so well deserved, he might sometimes regret the charms of their society, as well as the sight of that dear and august youth, whom he had formed for France, and who was always in his heart. But what censor is there so severe, what man is there so obdurate, as to consider sentiments so just and so natural, as deserving of reproach? It is true, that Fenelon had something to lose; we hold to our first affections, to our habitual connections, to our labours, and our hopes. It may be readily believed, that the virtues which remained for him to practise, the only consolations to a man like him, might be more difficult to exercise, than those which had already distinguished his life; but he performed them all. In his diocese, he gave himself up entirely to the functions of his ministry: every day and every hour in the day was devoted to them.—Yes, that sublime writer, with all his brilliant and refined powers, condescended to occupy himself in the most trifling duties of ecclesiastical administration, if the performance of a duty, be it what it may, can be called a condescension. He preached in the church of a village with as much satisfaction as in the chapel of Versailles. That voice which had charmed the court of Louis XIV, that genius which had enlightened Europe, were employed in giving instruction to the mechanic and the herdsman. His possessions were in reality the possessions of the poor. He was naturally of a disinterested character, and when the King gave him the Archbishopric of Cambray, he voluntarily resigned the Abbey of Saint Valery. He distributed his revenues among the ecclesiastics, who were attentive to their duties, and whose incomes were not adequate to their support; to those retreats where the female sex are sheltered from seduction, but which are not always secured from poverty; to those asylums consecrated to the relief of suffering humanity, and which frequently want the necessaries of life; and to those unfortunate persons who would rather suffer in secret, than be exposed to blush at their wants, and who would often perish in obscurity, if there were not minds of a superior mould, who go in search of the distress which hides itself from observation.—But we must turn from individual distress to the vast scene of misfortune which offered itself to the sensibility of Fenelon. That year, the most fatal of all the latter years of Louis XIV., when it appeared as if Heaven had determined that France should expiate its vaunted prosperity, and obscure the lustre of the most splendid reign that had distinguished its annals. The earth, barren, from the rivers of blood with which it had been inundated, became as cruel as those who ravaged it. The people overwhelmed, at the same time, by an unfortunate war, by increasing taxes and bitter want, gave themselves up to discouragement and despair.—The small quantity of provisions that had been preserved or gathered in, were so enhanced in the price, as to terrify the indigent, and to distress even the rich. An army, the only defence of the state, looked in vain for its subsistence, to those magazines, which a destructive winter had deprived of their supplies. On this occasion, Fenelon set an example of generosity; he was the first to send them the produce of his farms, and imitating his example, the surrounding country made similar efforts, and a bounteous liberality appeared in the midst of dearth.—Disease, the inevitable consequence of want, soon desolated the army and the country. The invasion of the enemy, added terror and consternation to so many accumulated evils. The country was deserted, and its terrified inhabitants fled into the towns, where accommodations could not be provided for the crowd which demanded them. It was then he opened his palace to the sick, to the wounded, to the poor, without exception; and engaged his revenues to procure a reception for those whom he could not receive himself. He feared not the contagion of disease, nor did he turn aside from the sad scene of human wretchedness which presented

itself before him.—What must be our feelings, when we see a man venerable from his age, his rank and his learning, like an angel of mercy giving help and consolation amidst the blessings of those whom he succoured, and offering the most affecting example of those virtues which he had himself taught.

The name of Fenelon was venerated throughout Europe, and even the enemies of his country felt themselves compelled to respect him. Eugene and Marlborough, who at that time were desolating France, were anxious to shew him that reverence, which victory and heroism most willingly grant to peaceful talents and the unarmed virtues. Detachments were ordered to guard his estates, and his grain was escorted to the gates of Cambray. All that belonged to him was considered as sacred.—Nay, more than once the archbishop Fenelon was seen with an escort of Austrian hussars, who considered it as a distinction to be permitted to conduct him.

If he possessed such an ascendant over those who knew him only by reputation, what must be the affections of those who were so happy as to approach him. He was of an equal temper, there was an elegant simplicity in his behaviour; and his conversation was, at once, copious and animated. His sleep was short, his repast frugal, and his manners possessed an irreproachable purity. As he knew no listless hours he never applied to play; his only recreation was walking, and he made that subservient to the exercise of his benevolence. When he met the country people he was delighted to converse with them, and has often been seen sitting upon the grass in a circle of them; he would enter their cottages, and receive with pleasure what their hospitable simplicity offered to him.

In the latter part of his life, he was engaged in a kind of philosophic correspondence with the Duke of Orleans, afterwards regent of France, upon those great questions which torture human curiosity, and to which revelation alone can give an answer. It was this intercourse which produced the *Letters on Religion.*

It was about this time that an opinion prevailed of his wish to return to court. It was said also that he declared himself against Jansenism, merely to flatter the opinions of Louis XIV., and to revenge himself of Cardinal Noailles who had condemned Quietism. But Fenelon was incapable of revenge, and was formed to love the pious Noailles, though he might not think like him: besides, he had always opposed the doctrines of Port-Royal. After all, could it be in retirement and old age, that this incorruptible man who had never practised flattery even at court, should learn the art of dissimulation?

His life, which did not exceed the ordinary term of the days of man, as it did not extend beyond sixty years, experienced the sorrow which is reserved for length of days. He lived to see all those die whom he most loved. He wept at the death of Beauvilliers and Chevreuse: and it need not be added with what grief he deplored the fate of the Duke of Burgundy, that object of his paternal affections, and who, in the course of nature, should have long survived him. He soon followed his royal disciple. A violent and painful disease carried him off in six days. He suffered with constancy, and died with the tranquillity of a pure heart, who sees nothing in death, but the instant when virtue draws nigh to the Supreme Being whose work she was. His last words were expressions of respect and love for the King who had disgraced him, and for the Church which had condemned him.

His memory should have the same advantage as his life; that of producing a love of religion. If its doctrine had always been announced by ministers like him, how glorious would it have been for religion itself,—how happy would it have been for mankind.—What virtuous man would refuse to be of the religion of Fenelon!

ACCOUNT OF THE ISLAND OF CUBA.

(From the Spanish Universal Traveller.)

Great part of the following observations are the result of a voyage to Cuba, by the editor of the *Viagero Universal.* For more particular details he is indebted to the information of his fellow-traveller Don Buenaventura Ferrer, a native of the island, with whom he embarked for the Havannah.

The waters of the Gulph of Mexico flow into the ocean by two passages. One near St. Augustine's in Florida, the other near the province of Yucatan. In the centre lies Cuba, the largest of the Antilles, in lat. 20° to 30° 15′; long. 258° 3′ to 301° 2′. Its length is computed at 235 leagues, its breadth is unequal; at the broadest part it extends 45 leagues; at the narrowest end 14 leagues. The circumference amounts to more than 600 leagues. A general temperature prevails over the island; winter never appears here, and frost and snow are only known by report. It might be asserted that the climate is a perpetual summer. The heat commences in May and continues till October. In November, December, and January, the N. wind prevails, and mitigates the heat in some degree. The whole difference between summer and winter at the Havannah is about 3°. The rains, which are of long continuance, do not sensibly affect the degree of heat. At the Havannah, they generally begin in June, and last till November, accompanied with dreadful storms; and in the

neighbourhood of Santiago slight earthquakes are sometimes felt. June 21, 1791, a deluge of rain for 24 hours caused all the streams to overflow; the river *Almendariz*, particularly, inundated the surrounding country, drove all the ship-timber collected there against a bridge, which had cost 80,000 piastres in building, carried it off, and formed a new bed for its waters. Nearly 200 men perished. But the tobacco-mills suffered most, as they were partly destroyed, and partly carried to the distance of two miles by the change of the stream.

Cuba is highly gifted by nature; metals and minerals alone are wanting; on the contrary it abounds in other treasures more substantial. There is not one navigable river, only small rivulets and streams, and 148 lakes containing fish. The sea also supplies the inhabitants with various kinds of fish of the best quality. There is a great abundance of turtle, and on festivals no other fish is eaten. All the fine fruits and vegetables peculiar to hot climates are plentifully produced. The pine-apples are preferred to all others. The country is constantly clothed with verdure, and no tree sheds its leaves before others are ready to replace them. Some fruits yield two crops. The chief produce of the island is the sugar-cane. At present they reckon 600 sugar-mills. From these, including what is consumed in the country, more than two millions of *arrobs* (4 cwt. each) of sugar was exported to Europe. The profits, likewise, must be considerable to defray the great expenses of a sugar plantation. The duty alone amounts to some thousands of piastres. In the plantation, visited by our author, above 200 negroes were employed. The head overseer commonly receives from 700 to 1,000 piastres annual wages; the inferior officers are paid in proportion.

Tobacco is the next most important produce of the island. It is all cultivated and sold on the King's account. In 1792, 120,000 *arrobs* (4 cwt. each) were sent to Spain, without reckoning the quantity consumed in the country, or in other parts of America. The export of wax that year amounted to 20,000 *arrobs*. Bees have only been introduced in Cuba since the year 1764. After the peace of Versailles, when Florida was ceded to the English, some families came over from St. Augustine and brought some hives with them. In a short time they increased so much, that the sugar-plantations were endangered. In 1792, 6,000 *arrobs* of cotton, were gathered. Cocoa and indigo are not cultivated in any proportion to the extent they might be. The sugar-plantations, which promise greater gain, are the cause of those valuable productions being neglected.

No part of the island is devoted to the culture of wheat, of the olive, or of the vine. Every article of clothing is brought from Europe, for there is not a single manufacture of any kind. We may easily imagine from this circumstance, to what an extent commerce must be carried at the Havannah. The amount of it in 1792, was reckoned at 25,600,000 piastres: the King's duties were 900,000 piastres. The most lucrative branch is the slave-trade. Natives, as well as foreigners, may participate in it. In 1792, 121 vessels laden with these victims, arrived at the Havannah. A free importation of them was allowed in 1789, and confirmed and extended in 1791. From that period to 1792, 2,217 slaves of both sexes were imported. If we reckon one with another at 200 piastres, the total will be 443,400 piastres.

Cuba abounds with choice woods, such as ebony, cedar, *caoba* and *guayacan*, &c. which are exported in great quantities to Spain. The highest mountains are called the *Tetas de Manuyna*. Cattle, horses, and mules, were first introduced by the Spaniards, and they have increased to such an extent, that they reckon at present a thousand herd of large cattle, 580 horse and sheep stalls, and 300 places for fattening of oxen, which belong to 3,600 farms, and 6,000 country seats.

The Havannah must be considered as the first staple in South America. All the merchandize of the old and new world, shipped from Europe to America, or from thence to Europe, must there be landed, packed, and entered. This causes a daily increase of population and wealth. The real population of the Havannah is not given by our author. According to Raynal, the whole island, in 1774, contained 171,628 souls, of which 98,766 were slaves. Our author refers to a later estimate that states the number at 500,000; a population very inconsiderable in comparison of the extent and fertility of the island.

Castle *Morro* is first seen in making the harbour of the Havannah. It stands on a perpendicular rock, and was built in 1584, by command of Philip II. In 1762, it was taken by the English, after a siege of 64 days. On the 12th of August following the city capitulated. Both were given up at the peace of 1763. The view of the city from the sea is delightful. It stands on a spacious plain, and is surrounded by a chain of strong hill-forts. The houses are mostly low, and lately the streets have been regularly paved. Between the city and a large suburb lies the *Campus Martius*.

The surrounding country embellishes the prospect of the Havannah, as it is always verdant and covered with an innumerable

number of trees. The mouth of the harbour is about 1000 geometrical paces in width; but owing to shallow water men of war are obliged to run in and out through a canal. The harbour, otherwise, is very good, and capable of containing nearly a thousand vessels. The depth of water, where ships can anchor near the mole, is generally eight fathom. They endeavour always, by cleansing, to keep the same degree of depth, which is the more necessary as the sewers from the city run into the harbour, and choak it so much, that it would soon become useless.

Whoever enters the Havannah for the first time, must be struck with the singular appearance of the interior. The men in the streets are either negroes or mulattoes. The whites seldom go on foot, but mostly ride in close carriages. Still more uncommon is it to see women of any rank on foot, except when going to mass; but then curiosity is very little gratified, for they are enveloped in their *mantillas*. The university is entirely in the hands of the Dominicans. There are six professors of theology, and six of law; four chairs are appointed for medicine, and three for philosophy. The philosophy taught there continues to be the Aristotelian. In the convent of *Belin*, children of all colours are instructed *gratis*, in reading, writing, and accounts. A patriotic society has been established, where premiums are distributed for arts and agriculture. This institution is furnished with a library; and a periodical paper appears every Sunday and Thursday, under the direction of its members.

A great want at the Havannah is that of good water. What is brought from the *Almendariz*, by means of a canal, is muddy and ill tasted. To obviate this evil, the rain water is collected in cisterns. The city has eight gates, of which only two are on the land-side. The finest building is the palace of the captain-general. The arsenal is a mile in circumference, and well supplied with stores; men of war and other vessels are built there. The building and arrangement of the tobacco manufactory is said to have cost 200,000 piastres. The city, without reckoning the suburbs, is two miles in circumference. It is protected by strong ramparts and ditches, as well toward the land as the sea. It contains a numerous nobility, among whom are reckoned twenty-two branches of the highest rank, styled *Titulos de Castilla*. In the suburbs all the streets are unpaved and irregular, consequently after violent rains they are impassable. However, these parts are very populous, being generally preferred to the city, particularly in the hot season. Persons live there more at liberty, the air is purer, and the houses more spacious.

There is no regular theatre at the Havannah; nor can the conjurors, slight-of-hand men, rope-dancers, and jumpers, be considered as supplying its place. The bull-fights are on a better footing; for the Spaniards cannot resign that darling passion. Still, however, they are far inferior to those in Spain. By the length of the voyage the animals lose their native ferocity, which suits the fighters here very well, as they want the necessary art and cleverness. On the other hand, they supply the loss by cock-fights, which are very common. There are persons in the Havannah who keep their own initiatory cock-pits. The method of fighting is of two kinds. The cocks fight either solely with their bills, consequently the battle is generally undecided; or they cut off the left spur of each animal, and fasten on a sharp blade an inch in length. Hence the combat is soon decided by the flight, or death of one of the combatants.

The flotilla of *Guarda Costas* consists of men of war, to protect the treasure from *Vera Cruz* to the Havannah. They also bring provisions from *Puerto Rico*, *la Guayra*, *Cumana*, and *Louisiana*. The garrison is composed of two veteran regiments, of two battalions each, one called the *Havannah*, the other the *Cuba*; two companies of light infantry, a squadron of dragoons, a native regiment of infantry of two batallions, a cavalry regiment of four squadrons, with an artillery corps, and different companies of negroes and mulatoes, who serve as artillerymen. The total number of troops on the island may be reckoned at 10,000: a force much too small to man the number of forts, in case of an attack on the island.

The whole land and sea force, with the government of the island, are under the command of a captain-general. Hence the appointment is of very great importance, and always given to a meritorious and respectable general. The two governments, of the Havannah and Cuba, are subdivided into different small jurisdictions. The alcaides and governors try all civil disputes, as well as criminal cases. Where the contending parties are not military, appeals are made to the high court of the district, which is now at *Puerto del Principe*. The power of the captain-general extends likewise over *Louisiana* and *Mobile*. The second in command is the governor of the Havannah; who in case of absence or death of the captain-general, acts provisionally in his stead.

Most journies to distant places are made by water, wherever it is possible. But should any one wish to visit the interior, though he would not be exposed to robbers and wild beasts, yet he must entirely forego all those conveniences, which travellers meet with in other countries. As there is little intercourse with the interior, the roads are bad; there is no passage over the streams; and nothing re-

sembling an inn. In some huts are to be found cheese, fruits, cassava bread, meat in abundance, and rum, but no place for a bed, for the inhabitants scarcely have room for themselves. On the contrary, the farmers, who live on the roads are so very hospitable, that their tables are always covered with two or three dishes for travellers; they constrain them to enter and partake of their fare gratuitously. The people in general, at a distance from the capital, are well disposed, domestic, and lively.

The city of *Baracoa* is the most ancient on the island. It stands on the N. E. coast, at the distance of 324 leagues from the Havannah. The population is not more than 2,700 souls.

Santiago de Cuba, being a bishop's see, and having been built by *Velasquez*, is always considered as the capital. Its distance from the Havannah is reported to be 269 leagues. The streets and houses are distributed without order or taste. It is subject to slight earthquakes. The harbour is spacious, and secure. Its population and trade are at present on the decline, still the number of inhabitants may be reckoned at 20,000. The women are said to be the handsomest in the island. It contains different convents, and is under the jurisdiction of a governor and a civil magistrate.

Puerto del Principe is the most populous city after the Havannah, containing 30,000 souls; and increases daily by being the seat of the highest court of judicature. It is distant from the Havannah 165 leagues.

Twenty-two leagues from thence stands *San Carlos de Mantanzas*, with a strong fort, and having a good harbour. The population 7000 souls.

Holguin reckons 600. *Guiza*, belonging to a marquis of the same name, contains nearly the same number. In the four cities of *Santo Espirito, Trinidad, Santa Clara*, and *San Juan de los Remedios*, they reckon 30,000. *Bayamo*, in the jurisdiction of *Santiago de Cuba*, contains 12,000. *Santiago de las Vegas* 5000; and *Bejucal*, a small city belonging to the Marquis *San Felipe*, above 2000.

Whoever travels through the country, beholds with extreme regret, the immense, uncultivated, yet highly fruitful tracts of land. He either discovers endless forests which the hand of man has not yet touched, or extensive plains covered with different kinds of cattle, kept by the neighbouring inhabitants. However, though Cuba cannot be reckoned among the most flourishing countries, and is far inferior to what it might be, yet agriculture, with commerce and the arts, are evidently progressive; and increasing opulence has not only introduced luxury, but a refinement in the objects of it.

ACCOUNT OF THE SALT LAKES AND MINES IN RUSSIA.

Salt is become so general and indispensable a necessary of life among most nations, that it constitutes, at present, one of the most important objects of political economy. Russia possesses such a quantity of rich salt-mines, that the inhabitants can procure this article at a low price unheard of in other countries. Twelve millions of *pouds* are annually consumed.

The most productive mines are on the Tlek, on the Volga, and on the Vilni; but hitherto only those on the Tlek are worked. They are 60 versts from Orenburg. From 1765 to 1787, (except the year 1773, when they were not worked on account of the disturbances) 9,770,794 pouds were collected.

The largest and most lucrative salt-lakes are; the Jelton in the government of Saratov; those near Astrachan, particularly the Inderski lake; and those in the government of Kolnevan. The Jelton produced in six years (from 1782 to 1788) 33,549,939 pouds, above 5½ millions annually. The Astrachanic lakes furnished in ten years (from 1765 to 1775) 6,766,097 pouds. The Inderski lake being given up to the Uralian Kosacks for their free use, the quantity cannot be accurately stated. From the Kolnevanic lakes, from 1777 to 1786, 4,856,312 pouds were collected. Among the rest, the Taurie, Caucasian, and Irkutskian are particularly productive. The former yield annually about three millions of pouds.

The richest salt-springs are; on the Kama near Solikamsk; on the Lovat near Staraja-Rusa; on the Donez near Bachmut and Tor; on the Volga near Totma and Balachna; in the Taurid, and in Taman; on the Dvina near Ustjug; on the Angara near Irkutsk: and in other places. The most considerable salt-pans are in the neighbourhood of Solikamsk in the government of Perm. From 1765 to 1774, 25,897,815 pouds were prepared; and in the years 1784 and 1785, 11,361,477 pouds; thus they amount to above 5½ millions annually, which, reckoning the poud at 35 copecks the market price, make a total of nearly two millions of roubles.

The Permian salt works belong partly to the crown, but mostly to private persons. In 1784 and 1785, the produce of those of the crown amounted to 2,746,320 pouds, and the private ones to 8,615,157 pouds. The expence of a salt-pan, which contains between 40 and 50,000 pouds, costs 2915 roubles 30½ copecks, including all necessaries, wages, &c.; so that the poud of salt costs the crown about six copecks. This salt is conveyed to twelve different governments, laden on large flat boats, which, without being fastened to-

gether by one single iron nail, carry from 40 to 90,000 pouds. They descend the Kama as far as Laischova, and then go up the Volga to Nishnei-Novgorod the great staple.

The salt-works near Staraja Rusa, in the government of Novgorod, produced in eleven years (from 1777 to 1788) 1,526,778 pouds. Those at Archangel yield about from 150 to 200,000 pouds annually.

From 1765 to 1777 the imperial magazines alone sold, on an average, eight millions of pouds every year. The poud is universally fixed at 35 copecks, and as, every thing included, we cannot estimate the annual consumption at less than 12 millions of pouds, this article produces a revenue of 4,200,000 roubles, by which the crown gains at most only two millions.

Yet with all this the demand is greater than the produce; and considerable quantities of foreign salt are annually imported in the harbours of Lipland and Finnland. The importation in 1768 (according to Gueldenstædt) amounted to 492,000 roubles. On the contrary, in 1793 the Taurid exported to the value of 23,000 roubles. So considerable a preponderance of importation, and the daily increasing demand, place it beyond a doubt, that the best possible regulations with regard to the present salt-works, as well as the employing to advantage all those mines and lakes, hitherto neglected, should be one of the most important concerns for the interior economy of the Empire.

[*From Storch's Picture of Russia.*]

INDIAN PRODUCTIONS, THE ACQUISITION OF WHICH IS DESIRABLE.

[Translated from the French. Vide Panorama, p. 609.]

We resume our consideration of those Indian vegetables with which we ought to desire a better acquaintance, by adverting in the next place to

VII.—VARIETIES OF THE PALM-TREE.

The *pendanus farinosus*, different from that named by botanists *odoratissimus:* The apple palm, originally from the islands of Nicobar, which the English, on the account of it given by Mr. Bools, have transplanted into their botanic garden at Bengal. This valuable palm yields a very large fruit, weighing 18 to 25 lbs., it contains a farinaceous substance, (whence I have taken the name I have given it above) wholesome, pleasant, and nutritive. It might be easily transplanted, or rather naturalized, in the West-India islands.

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VIII.—The *White Poppy* of Bahar, yields the finest opium in the world, a commodity of extensive demand throughout India, Persia, Arabia, and Turkey.

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IX.—The *Incense Shrub* abounds principally in Arabia; but some are found in different parts of Hindoostan, such as the sandy strip, between the Mogul and the peninsula, to adopt an expression used by Europeans, north-east of Berar. This vegetable is named by Linnæus, *Olibaccum, aut thus,* and *arbor thurifera:* by the Hindoos, *Abirquajar.* This low scrambling tree is not beautiful; its branches are thin, few, stunted, and contorted; its leaves, like those of the lentisk, are glabrous: the bark of this vegetable, which rises only to the heighth of 9 or 10 feet in Hindoostan, where it is not common, is wrinkled and cracked by an infinity of clefts, in colour of a grey white, and shining. It produces a gum which flows spontaneously from the clefts during seven or eight months of the year. It is odoriferous, dry, friable, hard, of a red brown, and sometimes whitish; in tears oblong, or rounded, dull on the outside, brilliant within; of an acrid taste, bitter, and of a very penetrating smell, when recently distilled, especially if burnt. This aromatic gum, useful on many occasions, is highly valued, and sold very dear, even in India.

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X.—The *Benjoin*, named in Hindoostanee, *dalbeugéni*, is a little gummy tree, which grows in the kingdoms of Siam and Ava, also in Java, in the Molucca isles, in Sunda, at Silote, and in the country of Tepra, near Bengal. The illustrious Jussieu, says, that the tree which produces the *benjoin*, is very little known to us, he gives it the name of *laurus benzoin.* This little tree, has an agreeable spread of leaves; it is classed by some naturalists in the family of laurels, but according to others does not belong to that genus: if I might take leave to place it according to my opinion, I should associate it with the cinnamon tree, which is well known to be of the laurel family. The Hindoos call the cinnamon *dalchija*; and the other as we have seen, *dalbeugéni.* Although the resemblance of name is no authority, according to our principles of botany, to arrange a vegetable rather in such a family than in such another, yet I must say, that the Hindoos make a kind of custom of taking for the root of the word, the best known plant of the kind, and they place the name of this plant either in the first or last syllable of the appellation which they intend to form. The *benjoin* shrub, or rather little tree, rises to the heighth of about 15 or 16 feet; its form is pyramidical and regular, delicate, and pretty; its leaves are nearly 5 or 6 inches in length, an inch and half to two inches in breadth; thick and numerous; in colour black green; the nerves are a red purple, many,

and highly raised; the wood is compact, close, hard, of a reddish yellow; the gum issues from incisions made in the branches and trunk of the tree, twice a year, during the vigour of the tree, from the age of five or six years, to fifteen or sixteen; and sometimes when it has not been over drawn, even to its thirtieth year. This gum is received into little bags made of hair, properly placed to receive the discharge from each incision; which is made in the form of a cross, and deep enough to penetrate the inner bark, it is white lightly tinged with yellow, glutinous and transparent, coagulates, hardens, and little by little, becomes of a clear lemon colour; and when not mixed is bright. The wood is reserved for union with that of sandal, of which torches and scented lights are made for burning in the temples, and at domestic festivals. It also composes part of those piles which are used in burning the bodies of the dead.

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XI.—The tree which produces the *Oil of wood*, a valuable drug, useful to every kind of construction in wood, and especially to ships and vessels. This resinous oil is extracted from a species of *teak*, a beautiful kind of tree, native of Pegu; by burning the tree: the fire consuming the woody parts, causes this kind of varnish to run freely from all parts of the trunk and branches of this vegetable. This varnish is of a strong and aromatic odour, but not injurious to the animal economy, nor productive of head-achs, as turpentine is. It is employed in painting wood-works, timbers, and furniture, either pure or mixed with any kind of colour; for this oil takes every pigment, from white to the deepest black. This *oil of wood* is drying, preserves wood from cracks, repells insects and vermin, preserves the wood for many years from being wormeaten, as well as from the attacks of different kinds of marine animals. In proof of this, the vessels built at Surat and Pegu, which are always carefully coated with this resinous oil, as well within as without, last, it is said, three centuries. A ship taken in 1762 by Comte d'Estaing, in the Persian gulph, was in good condition, although it had been off the stocks 170 years. To preserve artillery, the Europeans coat it first with the juice of aloes, and then with the oil of wood.

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XII.—An object which it is very desirable to naturalize in the colonies, as being extremely useful, as well for health, as for commerce, and even for luxury, is the *agallochum*, called by the several names of *aloës*, *columbo*, *agal wood*, and *yellow medicinal wood*. This tree which the Hindoos call *pérénépalk*, is a magnificent present from the hand of nature; it unites on the same branch three distinct parts, all of them valuable. The bark yields that sweet, wholesome, and pleasant perfume, named *agal wood*, which is sold for its weight in gold; the inner bark of this vegetable is a good remedy against putrid and bilious fevers; and those occasioned by the insalubrity of the air, such, for example, as the yellow fever; decoctions of it are given several times a day to the sick: it is also employed with success, infused in white wine, or in brandy, or arrack, against pains in the stomach occasioned by over fatigue, also against the marasmus. This remedy is tonic and corroborative. The interior, or woody part, which the Chinese name *rose-wood*, on account of its colour and scent, is useful to the cabinet maker, who converts it into most beautiful furniture; whether we consider the polish of which it is capable, its colour, or the resemblance of its scent to that of a most valued flower.

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XIII.—The tree named *Babeila*, of the genus acacia, of the family of the mimosas; this tree feeds the winged insects which yield the gum lac, which is called in Hindoostan *lakinia*. I do not doubt, but that this useful vegetable, as well as the insects which it supports, would succeed in the climate of the Isle of France. It would be a means of increasing the revenue of that colony, and that without occupying much space or the labour of many individuals.

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XIV.—Among the plants which yield indigo, there is one, the fecula of which is a *green*, capable of dyeing. The extractive particles of the yellow and blue, are combined in such proportion, in such quantity, and with such cohesion, that the green colour which they furnish, may be fixed successfully on all substances, whether animal or vegetable, intended to be dyed. This plant is named *dina-xang*, and the Cochin Chinese have the skill to extract from it a green indigo, with which they dye every possible shade of this colour, *i. e.* of green. This plant, almost unknown to Europeans, would be a valuable acquisition, could it be procured and naturalized in our colonies; the cultivation of it would augment their riches, and the produce would be of the utmost utility to our arts.

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XV. The tree which produces the wadding, and which is called *tomlax*, in Hindoo *hadipé*, is large and of a noble character. It rises straight up to the height of 24 or 25 feet, and readily grows in all sorts of soils, without care or culture. It is remarkable by the green colour of its bark, which is delicate and smooth.

The fruit of this tree, which has not yet struck the attention of any traveller, is nevertheless of the greatest utility. It is much

larger and longer, than the pods of the cotton plant, and incloses a very fine and silky down, which the Hindoos do not employ in manufactures because the staple is too short: but the wool is capable of making the most beautiful felts; as I have learned from experience. When I returned to France, in 1788, I brought a dozen pounds with me; with part of it I had a hat made, which was thought equally beautiful with those made of beaver, as a substitute for which I used it. Of this trial I warrant the truth; and every confirmation of it may easily be obtained. This article, therefore, may become of importance to the revenue of our colonies, and a farther assistance to our commerce and manufactures.

Several years after the trial of which I have spoken, in reading the work of M. Poupée Desportes, on the pharmacopeia of St. Domingo, I found the following passage; "The advantage which might be derived from the cotton of this tree, (called *Mapou* at St. Domingo) deserves our attention. All the world admires the beauty, the delicacy, and the goodness of the beaver hats of England. These good qualities are owing to the down contained in the fruit of this tree, which the English employ in the manufacture of the article mentioned." He adds, "The French, so ingenious in the invention and perfecting of arts, might derive great advantages from the treasures which are offered them by our colonies."

Let me be permitted before I close this division, of Vegetables, to mention three species of *turnecs*, originally found in Tibet, different from those of Europe; and which the English have transplanted into Bengal; also a species of aubergine, called vulgarly, *éringèle* or *ivory méringèle*, because of its whiteness, transplanted also from the same country to the banks of the Ganges, and to the other British possessions on the coasts of Coromandel, and Orissa. This is a leguminous fruit, large and delicious, weighing five or six pounds. It is in all probability, the most bulky, and most useful, of all the *solanums* which are known.

This excellent production recalls to my mind, a root, or opening sprout, of the palm; of which I have spoken in my memoir on the cocoa-tree, and a root named in Bengal *cherik*, a species of small *topinambour*, vulgarly called *earth-pear*: a wholesome and nutritive root, of a deep yellow colour, like the *Indian saffron*, named by the botanists *curcuma*, or *terra merita*. The *cherik* yields a plentiful, delicate, and agreeable nourishment. This acquisition would add to the subsistence of our colonies. Tibet, Cashmir, Bahar, Lahor, Bengal, and the whole of Hindoostan, as well as the neighbouring countries, would furnish an ample harvest of novelties; as would also the island of Ceylon, to any traveller of adequate knowledge and discernment. Ceylon produces a kind of chesnut very large and farinaceous, which the Portuguese call *coté-caval*, because this fruit resembles certain parts of a horse.

I ought not to omit the little grain which succeeds in clarifying in a short space of time, the most muddy water, as well as other liquors, and even wines, without injuring either their flavour, or their good qualities. It is a kind of little round bean, called in Tamul, *tétan-cote*, of which I do not know the botanic name, as I have never seen a description of it. This grain is the production of a shrub which grows in different provinces, as well in the north, as in what is called the Peninsula on this side the Ganges. Its properties render it valuable for domestic uses, and for some arts. Not having had opportunity of observing the flowers, I cannot describe them.

These countries, rich in the productions of the three kingdoms, abound in vegetables, which are well adapted to medical purposes, and indeed are in daily use in physic. The most part are unknown to us, as well as their properties. The astonishing effects which they produce before the eyes of Europeans, ought to have roused their emulation to transmit the knowledge of them to their compatriots, and not the knowledge of them only, but the acquisition, and means of experimental acquaintance with them.

The attempt, I acknowledge, is not of easy execution without powerful means of success. I myself have made the experiment, but to my sorrow. In 1788, of a great number of seeds which I entrusted to a captain of an Indiaman, not any reached the places to which I had addressed them.

[*The Animals of India will form subsequent articles.*]

SKETCH OF THE HISTORY AND ADVANTAGES OF COMMERCE.

Impiger extremos curris mercator ad Indos,
Per mare pauperiem fugiens, per saxa, per ignes.
HOR.

THE comprehensive genius of man has been ever active, in searching after some new and latent good, which by rendering him more wise, will consequently render him more happy: but never has it been more conspicuously, or more usefully employed, than in the invention of commerce. If we consider this attentively, and trace its rise, its progress, and its consequences, we shall at once be struck with the multiplied advantages it affords mankind, and the long train of blessings, which have never failed to follow it in every country where it has been steadily pur-

sued. In the investigation of this subject, the secret springs and causes that have operated to abolish civil dissention and disorder will be distinctly seen, and we shall be led to consider the different conditions of men in their progress from primitive rudeness, to the most refined civilization.

When we reflect on the numerous wants, which men must unavoidably feel in their rude state, and consider the versatile mind of man, ever ready to grasp at any thing that promises either novelty or convenience, we shall be at no loss to discover the first rudiments of that art, which may be justly called the parent of all others, and shall have reason to conclude, that its origin is as ancient, as its principles are simple.

Necessity, the mother of invention, early suggested the means of supplying the wants of mankind by the easy method of exchange: the first advantages of this intercourse were but trifling; for in the early ages of society, man was in a condition little superior to that of the brute: while yet an inhabitant of the forest, or the cave, his reasoning faculties must have lain dormant, or if roused into action, could have been exerted on no other objects than those of security and subsistence. But this barbarous state could not long continue, it was soon perceived that one man or one family could not live without the assistance of another, and that their condition would be improved by a mutual exchange of that portion of the necessaries of life, which was more than sufficient for their respective wants. Limited indeed must have been that exchange, while agriculture was unknown, while hunting was the sole employment of man, and the only means of his support. But when he began to till the ground, the husbandman would give his corn for hard-earned spoils of the chace.

As intercourse became more common, manners were gradually humanized: commerce began to assume another, and more perfect form: the many inconveniences to which exchange, simple and unimproved, gave birth, were obviated by the invention of money, at first rude and perishable, till at length metals were used for that purpose, and became the universal medium of trade. Thus in examining the usages of remote antiquity, we can discern the dawn of that light, which fostered the spirit of commerce, and cheered the mind of man, amidst the prevailing gloom of barbarism and ignorance.

Soon after the introduction of money, commerce began to be regular and unobstructed, and the different countries in which it was encouraged, started as it were into new life: the names of stranger and of enemy were no longer synonimous, when intercourse between different and distant nations prevailed. We are assured from the earliest and most authentic records,* that this mercantile intercourse was carried on soon after the general dispersion of mankind. But the traffic between nations hardly deserved the name of commerce, till men were acquainted with navigation: it was long too before this art could attain to any degree of perfection, or that the knowledge of it was made subservient to the purposes of social life. It has been observed by an elegant and judicious writer,† that "from "the raft or canoe, that served to carry the "savage over the river, that obstructed him "in the chace, to the construction of a ves-"sel, capable of conveying a numerous crew "with safety to a distant coast, the progress "in improvement is immense."

The extensive influence of navigation on the subject we are now treating, will, in the course of investigating its progress, be clearly perceived; and the intimate connection, that commerce has with the operations of naval improvement, will in every stage of it open to our view. In the early ages which we are now considering, navigation must have been in its infancy, if not entirely unknown, it was long before men would venture on a boisterous element, and commit their property and their lives to the mercy of the winds and waves.

But it is unnecessary to search in the barren waste of ruder ages for the seeds of that art, which when sown in the rich and fertile soil of Egypt, and watered by the streams of the Nile, was productive of wealth, of science, and of manners that distinguish and adorn a civilized people.

It has been generally agreed, that in Egypt the art first attained to any degree of perfection, and that commerce was there first carried on in an uniform and popular channel. We shall find this conjecture founded on reason and probability, if we consider the industrious and ingenious disposition of the people: and shall be induced to believe, that they did not long remain ignorant or careless of the inestimable benefits, that might accrue to their country from the happiness of its situation. So sensible indeed were the inhabitants of this country of their local advantages, that the grateful and pious Egyptians beheld with reverence, and willingly subscribed to the deification of the first inventers and promoters of commerce and the arts. But superstition checked the advancement of trade, and by whispering to the Egyptians that the sea was an enemy to their God, taught them to consider navigation as disgraceful. Mariners were regarded with dislike and abhorrence; and it was reserved for the Phenicians to explore unknown seas, and to enrich their barren coast by the pro-

* Genesis. chap. 37, v. 25.

† Robertson's Hist. of America, vol. 1. p. 8.

ductions of distant countries. But, however, trade in earlier ages, might have suffered by this absurd opinion; Egypt has justly been celebrated as the nurse of ancient commerce, and of most of those arts that tend to civilise mankind. The Macedonian hero, the most refined politician, as well as the greatest conqueror of the age in which he lived, was so convinced of the advantageous situation of this country, that the grand object, as it were, and the most profitable effect of his victories, was the foundation of a city (Alexandria), which long continued the seat of trade, and the general mart of the world. Still the advancement of ancient commerce is chiefly to be ascribed to the Phenicians, whose national character, the reverse of the Egyptian, prompted them to engage in mercantile intercourse with every nation, whose commodities could either increase their power, or gratify their avarice. By an incessant attention to commerce, they erected on their sterile and rocky coast, an emporium in which the produce of every country then discovered was to be found. Their success in trade, and the benefits they derived from it were so great, that the merchants of Phenicia have been compared in splendour and eminence to "Princes and the honourable of the earth."

But though thirst of wealth was the most striking, it was by no means the only characteristic of this people, nor were their minds enervated by that opulence, which was the fruit of their trade: their long and uncertain voyage round Africa, in an age unacquainted with the use of the compass, and with almost every art that contributes to render navigation secure, must be considered as the most enterprising and arduous attempt at discovery that history records. Tyre has been celebrated no less for its commerce than for its siege. The memory of it will remain as a wonderful instance of mercantile intrepidity, and valiant resistance; the bravery of its defenders was as eminent, as the policy of its conqueror was cruel. Nor was commerce buried in the ruins of Tyre: for through the thick mist in which the history of this period is enveloped, we discover Carthage, raised and totally supported by trade, shining with a splendour, which increased by contrast with the surrounding darkness. In tracing the progress of commerce among the ancients, we shall no where find our admiration more strongly excited, than in contemplating its happy influence in the aggrandisement of this people: the spirit of trade was engrafted on the very constitution of the state: to this it owed its origin, and its subsequent greatness. Whether we view it emerging from obscurity, and nursed by the parental care of the Phenicians, or in the plenitude of its power resisting the attacks of Roman jealousy, we shall have equal reason to admire the genial influence of commerce, and its vast resources, which afforded the Carthaginians the means of carrying on their tedious and expensive wars against that people, and made it for some time doubtful whether Rome or Carthage should give law to the world. The affinity between commerce and navigation is more clearly discovered and exemplified in the history of the Carthaginians, than in that of any other people, with which we are acquainted. Their unwearied attention to promote the interest of the state, and to cultivate every scheme that could tend to its glory and advantage, directed them to pursue navigation as their chief employment, to visit regions the most remote, and even carried them to the then inhospitable shores of Britain, in quest of tin. At the demolition of this city, commerce was dispersed among the several provinces of the vast empire of Rome. The Romans (at least under the republic) actuated by the fierce and savage spirit of warfare, and despising the milder and more useful arts of peace, suffered the nations into which their arms had penetrated to carry on their usual trade without molestation. This certainly by keeping up a mercantile, if not a martial, spirit among the inhabitants of the provinces contributed to render their servitude more tolerable, and relieved them in some degree from the galling pressure of a master's yoke.

But however trade may have been neglected by the rugged sons of Rome, the capital of the world must necessarily have engrossed most of the productions of the provinces: the several nations of the old world never enjoyed so free an intercourse as when connected under one general head Commerce then flourished without interruption, either from the frequent hostility of adverse states, or the jealousy of rival kings; all was conducted with order and regularity, till the irruptions of the barbarians. Commerce then fell; in the general conflagration was consumed, and lay buried in the wreck of literature, civilization, and law: till from its ashes arose a phœnix, more splendid, more flourishing than its parent, the source and prop of national strength, of liberty, and science.

During the devastation which followed the standard of the northern ravagers, and the long night of barbarism that overshadowed the western empire, a faint ray of light, still glimmered in the east, and served to conduct the merchant to the shores of India, the sure spring in all ages of commercial opulence. Constantinople long resisted the attacks of savage violence, and by cherishing commerce as the support of her independence, maintained the splendour, though stripped of the possessions of the eastern empire. When the fertile plains of Italy were laid waste by the

frequent inroads of the barbarians, and the continent of Europe became one vast theatre of war, outrage, and confusion; a few straggling families, fleeing from the desolating sword of Attila, took refuge in the marshes of Liguria, and the rocky shores of the Adriatic. Here though bereft of home, and of the pleasures of civilized society, they enjoyed liberty and independence, and by devoting their attention to trade, rendered their situation by degrees respectable, and at length the object of envy. Not satisfied with trading to the several ports of the Mediterranean, they took a wider range, and venturing beyond the streights, crept along the shores washed by the western ocean. Roused by the awakening call of industry, they formed themselves into civil communities, and became considerable and independent states. From this auspicious period they cultivated the commercial spirit with ardour, and prosecuted it with success. Such was the rise, and such the establishment of the once potent republics of Genoa and Venice.—While these republics were encreasing in wealth and importance, an event happened the most remarkable and extravagant that enthusiasm was ever known to suggest, or zeal to execute. The nations of Christendom, inflamed with religious frenzy, excited by the bold and popular eloquence of Peter the hermit, and kept alive by the policy of Pope Urban, formed the resolution of delivering Palestine from the yoke of the infidels. The most powerful chiefs, from love of adventure, and the hope of future reward, engaged in these enterprizes, and embarked with eagerness in the wild design. These valiant enthusiasts were transported in the vessels of the Venetians, the Pisans, and the Genoese, who, while other states were drained of their men and money, derived benefit from the fanaticism of the times. They supplied with provisions the vast armies of the cross, and amassed sums that would, even in this age, be esteemed immense. Constantinople, the general rendezvous of the christian warriors, was then indebted to Venice and Genoa for almost every commodity that wealth and luxury demanded.

The effects of the Crusades on manners, and consequently on commerce, were great and powerful, the Europeans who returned communicated to their countrymen a taste for Asiatic luxury; the simple habits of their ancestors no longer satisfied their desires, new customs, new fashions every where sprung up, and opened fresh sources of wealth and merchandize, "many valuable branches of commerce, which formerly centered in Constantinople were transferred to Venice, Genoa, or Pisa." Nor are we to conclude that these were the only states that were benefited by the crusades, and the intercourse produced by them with the Orientals: their beneficial influence was as extensive and permanent, as the motives that gave rise to them were singular and wild.—Not long after this spirit of enthusiasm had evaporated, the polarity of the magnet was discovered, which contributed above every other cause to the extension of commerce, and, as it is expressed by an eminent writer,* "opened the universe." This discovery, in its consequences the most beneficial to mankind, laid open a wide field for enterprize and adventure: the mariner was no longer detained from traversing unknown seas for want of a guide to direct his course.—Commerce during this period, was not confined to the states of Italy: the inhabitants of the Netherlands, sensible of the prodigious advantages that those states derived from their traffic with the East, formed the most powerful confederacy recorded in history, and vied with each other in the most vigorous exertions of trade. By this well-timed attention to the only art that could raise them from that ignorance in which Europe had beeen overwhelmed, and by exchanging the naval stores and other useful commodities of the North, for the productions of India and Egypt they became rich and powerful, surpassed in opulence, and at length awakened the jealousy of the most mighty monarchs. The Hans-Towns equalled the cities of Venice and Genoa in riches and splendour. Bruges especially became the chief mart of every commodity that contributes either to luxury or use, and was justly esteemed one of the most opulent cities on the European continent.—Thus did Italy, and the cities situated between the Baltic and the Rhine, monopolise the trade of Europe, and surpass their more martial neighbours, in wealth and consequence, till other nations, envying their prosperity, had recourse to the same expedient, and arrived at the same pitch of grandeur and magnificence. Among these none can claim a higher title to our regard than the Portuguese who encouraged by the most enterprising genius of his time,† attempted and accomplished the dangerous, and, at least in modern times, unexplored circuit of Africa. This voyage, by affording a more ready and less expensive passage to India, was the principal source of opulence to the Portuguese: the change it produced in commerce was sudden and important; Lisbon encreased in wealth, while Venice declined and sunk into insignificance.—While men were engaged in wonder and amazement at the fortunate issue of this voyage, an event occurred more marvellous and unexpected, and productive of consequences more momentous and permanent. The discovery of a new world roused the dormant faculties of men. Every one who was

* Montesquieu.

† Don Henry.

desirous of acquiring riches or reputation, was eager to hazard his life and fortunes, in the hope that he might rise to that eminence in another hemisphere, which was denied him in this. From this period the tide of commerce, no longer confined to the shores of Italy and Flanders, flowed into the ports of Spain and Portugal, and enriched those nations beyond the example of former ages. —It is remarkable that England, at present the most commercial nation in the world, should have been the last country that directed its attention to trade. Her numerous and almost perpetual wars, occupied her people for many centuries, and while the neighbouring nations had made several and important commercial adventures, so ignorant was England of her natural advantages, that the staple commodity of the kingdom was manufactured abroad. It were tedious and uninteresting to enumerate every state that owed its origin or importance to trade: in this general view of its rise, declension, and revival, we have seen the smallest states, and even cities, formed by the plastic hand of commerce into extensive sovereignties; and by thus having briefly surveyed its progress, we shall be the better able to judge of its more immediate, as well as more lasting effects.

Of the many and important consequences of commerce, none are more obvious, or felt more sensibly, than those that affect, and in some degree form the manners and disposition of a people. Industry and a love of freedom are among the most prominent features of the mercantile character; and in every country in which trade is cultivated, are seen to influence the conduct of the individual and the politics of the state. By commerce are men stimulated to the greatest exertions, their hopes animated, and industry encouraged by the sure confidence that their diligence will not be unrewarded, and that riches will ever obey the powerful attraction of enterprise and toil.—Thus trade expands the faculties, and awakens the interest of man, excites him to activity, stimulates invention, and invigorates labour. We shall no where find a more striking example of the beneficial effects of commerce, and of the fatal consequences of its decay, than in a state already mentioned. The Venetians, while supported by trade were rich, and the state powerful; but as commerce sunk, their power, their importance declined, the nation languished, and having feebly supported the dignity of independent sovereignty, has recently become a scene of anarchy and rapine, and has fallen an inglorious prey to the insolent rapacity of France.—The condition indeed of those nations who have suffered their commerce to decay is truly pitiable: deprived of the sources that supplied articles of pleasure or luxury, they sink into corruption and effeminacy, and groan under the pressure of all those ills

"That opulence departed leaves behind."

The Spaniards, since they have been in possession of the rich mines of America, have neglected the domestic sources of wealth. Trade, industry and manufacture have been exchanged for idleness, pride, and emigration. They have consequently become dependent on other nations for many of the conveniencies, and some of the necessaries of life, and the country is become weak, poor, and depopulated. To this indeed, their form of government has in some measure contributed, for commerce is ever seen to flourish under mild and equal laws, but always fades and sickens in the arid soil of tyranny and oppression.—It is the happy object of commerce to enrich, at the same time, the individual and the country at large; the more the merchant acquires, the more is his country benefited. Trade then, is the great subject on which man may most profitably exercise his attention, and is the proper pursuit, and best support of an enlightened, powerful, and virtuous people. It has indeed been said, that luxury and corruption never fail to creep into commercial countries, and by poisoning the springs of national felicity, are more than a balance for all the benefits that a lucrative and extensive commerce can afford. It has been said also that people engaged in trade and manufacture are fraudulent, mercenary, and unfit for more noble employments; that their minds as well as their bodies become enfeebled and dispirited, and that they are incapable of those actions that have done honour to human nature, and exalted the dignity of man. But this objection has been unjustly urged; for though fraud may have entered into the breast of the trader of rude ages, and the petty retailer of our own, we may observe, that the merchant in an advanced state of commerce, is punctual, liberal, and generous; and the sedentary and peaceful occupation of the artificer and mechanic are surely preferable to the wandering and predatory life of the Tartar or the Arab.

We need not recur to foreign nations for proofs of the advantages of commerce; they are no where more conspicuous or more acknowledged than in our own. It is the happy and envied boast of this island, to retain the possession of a trade as lucrative as it is universal, and by means of that trade to surpass other nations in wealth, strength, and consequence. And when we consider that this country, by no means the most considerable in extent or in the advantages of climate and fertility, is at present the most independent and powerful; that she alone carries on with steadiness, and supports with spirit and dignity, a war in which most other nations have either actually suffered, or are now me-

naced with ruin and destruction, we shall find abundant reason to guard our commerce with vigilance, and rejoice in its extent. May that commerce continue to afford us protection, as hitherto it has done, against the assaults of domestic commotion or open hostility, and still remain the support of our freedom, constitution, and law.

Lydd. J. N.

VIEW OF THE FINANCES OF THE EAST-INDIA COMPANY.—Abstracted from Lord Morpeth's Speech, July 10, 1806.

In this abstract the actual receipts and expenditures, are inserted; without respect to the estimates sent from India.

BENGAL.

The receipt from the Sale of Salt has been considerably enhanced in the two last years, principally by the effect of regulations to prevent the illicit trade. The excess in 1803-4 beyond the average of 1800-1 to 1802-3, is £670,000, and beyond that of 1802-3, of which it forms a part, nearly £340,000.

It is found, that for several years past the estimates of the land revenues have been exceeded by the actual collections.

Sale of opium, £45,561. The productiveness of this resource is greatly to be attributed to the present system of management, which enforces the most scrupulous attention to the quality of the article. The excess now exhibited is owing to the actual sale price having been greater than the estimated.

Deficit—Oude Subsidy and revenues of ceded provinces, £52,698. The deficiency is to be attributed, in the first place, to the failure of the monopoly of salt, which was proposed to be established on the same principle as in the Bengal provinces; and in the second place, to a most unfavourable season occasioning a failure in the harvests, which rendered considerable remissions absolutely necessary for the relief of the renters.

Sale of salt, £30,645. Notwithstanding the actual receipt has thus fallen short of the expectation, it is still the greatest amount ever realized from the salt sales, exceeding the last year £350,000, and the average of the last three years £570,000. The deficiency now shewn is intirely in the sale price: the quantity sold exceeded the estimate.

MADRAS.

The diminution of average receipt is to be regretted, and the more, as in the two last years a decrease appears in the realization of these revenues. No detailed account has been received, by which the defalcations, in any particular instance, can be precisely explained; but the advices state, that the seasons have been, for several years, remarkably unfavourable, from the extraordinary prevalence of drought.

Excess: Land and sea customs, £24,883, partly from regulations recently established, and partly from contingent circumstances.—Revenues of the Carnatic, £119,358, partly by a greater collection on balances than estimated, and partly in the customs.

Deficit:—The revenues of Tanjore, and ceded and conquered countries of Mysore; also land revenues, the whole of which must be attributed to the extreme unfavourableness of the seasons.

BOMBAY.

It is satisfactory to observe, that notwithstanding the apprehensions under which this estimate was framed, that the effects of excessive dearth and famine would be materially felt in the revenues, the gross collections are found to exceed the estimate.

The excess appears in land revenues, £22,643, chiefly in the collections from the districts ceded by the Peishwa: and in the farms and licences, £23,806.

The deficiency is in the customs and duties; imputable to a considerable decrease in the imports from Europe and China, also to the late arrival of the fleet, from which the customs could not be brought to account before the close of the official year.

An excess has occurred in the civil charges, £6,702, principally to be attributed to a charge incurred in consequence of the fire which did considerable damage at Bombay.

It is to be observed, that the Bombay army, exclusive of the detachment in Guzerat, was merely in a state of preparation for active service in the latter months of 1802-3, whereas it was generally employed on field service during the whole of 1803-4; consequently the military expenses of that year were very much beyond those of the preceding. It appears that the charges in the last year were more by £413,671: of which £379,093, were in the military; the remainder, chiefly in the revenue department, for the expenses in the management of the newly acquired districts.

A considerable addition to the revenues for 1804-5, is reckoned upon from the territories which have come into the possession of the Company by treaty and conquest. The civil charges in general, from a variety of contingent circumstances, arising from the particular situation of affairs, are expected to be higher in this year than in the last.

BENCOOLEN, PINANG, &c.

The measures taken to enforce the regular transmission of documents have not hitherto produced the desired effect. As a more summary mode of proceeding has been adopted, by which the conduct of the affairs of the residency is under special examination, it may be hoped, that at no distant period the actual state of them will, in common with the other branches of the concern, be brought under review, to the proper dates.

GENERAL VIEW

Of the actual Accounts of the year 1803-4,

Revenues.		
Bengal, -	£8,060,993	
Madras, -	4,653,401	£13,273,044
Bombay, - -	558,650	
Charges.		
Bengal, -	£5,434,291	
Madras, -	6,136,845	13,214,114
Bombay, - -	1,642,978	
Net revenue of three presidencies		58,930
Deducted from supplies from Bengal to Bencoolen, Pinang, and St. Helena, - - - - - -		304,056
Leaves a net charge, of - - -		245,126
To which adding interest, &c. paid on		
Debts at Bengal, £957,727		
Ditto - Madras, 334,179		*1,534,758
Ditto - Bombay, 242,852		
The total		£1,779,884

is the amount in which the territorial and other revenues were inadequate to meet the demands for the charges of government, and the interest on the debts.

The resource derived from sale of imports - - - - - - - -	655,481
Deducted from deficit above, leaves	1,124,403

which is the deficit after the liquidation of every current demand of the year 1803-4, except the commercial charges not added to the invoices.

APPLICATION OF COMMERCIAL FUND.

Bengal.--Charges of trade at presidency and factories	100,256	
Advances for investments, including commission to residents, &c.	1,080,599	1,380,855
Supply to Canton -	200,000	
Madras.— Charges, allowances, &c. commercial department - -	51,863	
Advances for investment, charges, &c. - - -	574,886	706,771
Supply to Canton - -	80,022	
Bombay.—Salaries, &c. commercial department	17,657	
Advances for investment, charges, &c. - -	176,063	193,844
Supply to Canton -	124	
Fort Marlbro' - - - - - -		39,014
Total advances, commercial charges and investments, and China, in 1803-4 - - - - - - - -		2,320,484

This amount is less than estimated, £280,000. The supply to Canton was less only £17,854: the remainder was in the provision of investments at Bengal and Madras, from the exigencies of the government calling for funds to a very extensive amount. The amount of the cargoes actually consigned to Europe from India, in 1803-4, charges not added, is £1,674,645.

The value of these cargoes, exclusive of charges, amount to £1,497,561, which is less than the amount of the advances on account of the commerce in the year by £373,000; but the quantity of merchandize actually consigned to Europe in the year, rarely accords precisely with the amount which may have been advanced for the purposes of commerce; as it depends upon a variety of circumstances what quantity shall be shipped in the year. In due proportion with the advances, the produce of which has been obtained in goods, will the increase of assets be found, when the consignments have not been made to their full extent. In this year the remains of export goods in warehouse are found to be considerably greater than in the last.

The ordinary resources from revenue and the sale of imports have been found insufficient to meet the extensive demands in this year for the conduct of the general administration of India, in - - - - £1,124,403
Advances for commercial purposes 2,320,484

Additional funds required - - 3,444,887

Exclusive of certain advances, frequently required on other accounts, either to be adjusted with his Majesty's government, supplies to Ceylon, naval services, &c. or with the concern at home, for payments for chartered ships, &c.——The supplies received from Europe in bullion, &c. were great, but not sufficient to meet the several demands; a considerable increase has therefore occurred in the debts.

DEBTS IN INDIA.

30th April, 1803, gross amount, - -	£21,881,571	
Deduct, in hands of commissioner of the Sinking Fund -	2,012,348	19,869,223
30th April, 1804, gross amount, - -	25,336,263	22
Deduct Sinking Fund	2,800,056	
Increase, in 1803-4 - -		2,666,984

The part of the above debts bearing interest was,

30th April, 1803,	18,712,933	
Deduct Sinking fund	1,686,917	17,026,016
30th April, 1804,	21,276,466	
Deduct Sinking Fund	2,244,532	19,031,934
Increase, in 1803-4 - -		2,005,918

* This sum includes £140,436 paid to the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, for interest on the public securities, which had been redeemed by them.

Amount of interest on debts.	£.	
Upon principal owing 30th April, 1803,	1,574,011	
Deduct, on securities redeemed by the Sinking Fund - - -	126,360	1,447,651
Upon principal owing 30th April, 1804	1,754,843	1,588,389
Deduct Sinking Fund	166,454	
Increase of interest, 1804		140,738

It appears that the plan established in 1785, and modified in 1793, for the remittance or transfer of Indian debt to England, has entirely ceased to operate. This plan being on a fixed rate of exchange, could not be expected to have effect any longer than whilst the rate so fixed should render it eligible to the public creditors to avail themselves of it. It may be added, that the institution of a Sinking Fund in 1798, and its subsequent operation, with the terms on which loans have been raised of late years, by which an option was left to the persons lending the money to be repaid in England at a more favourable rate of exchange, have now totally superseded the former mode of transfer. The amount redeemed by the Sinking Fund, in the year, was £557,615.

ASSETS IN INDIA.

30th April, 1803, value of the assets, consisting of cash, bills, stores, goods, debts, &c. - - -	£14,630,971	
Deduct, balance and securities in hands of commissioners of Sinking Fund -	2,012,348	12,681,623
30th April, 1804,	17,252,399	
Deduct Sinking Fund	2,800,056	14,452,343
Increase, 1803-4 - - -		1,833,720
Deducting this sum from the increase in debts, - - - -		2,666,984
the state of the Company's affairs in India is become worse during the year, by - - -		833,264

The detail of the assets shews, that the only article in which the balance has lessened in the year, is the cash and bills, only £18,914. An increase is exhibited on all the others: on stores to the amount of £273,627, from the great importation from Europe, and from immense purchases in India in consequence of the war. The supplies from Europe, in the season 1802-3, have considerably increased the import goods. The remains of export goods have increased £560,169. The addition to the debs owing to the Company is £429,527. The latter sum is in the various departments of the several presidencies, and is, with a small exception as to the increased amount owing on revenue balances, due on advances which have actually been made, or on the sales of salt at Bengal, that did not become payable with the year.

HOME ACCOUNTS.

From these a judgment may be formed of the extent of the trade with the East, both as to import and export.

The aggregate amount of the sales of goods from India, whether on the account of the Company or private traders, in 1804-5, is £8,044,392, which is less than the sales of the preceding year by the sum of £380,876.

The sales of the Company's goods in 1804-5, were estimated at -	£6,808,700
Actual amount - - - -	5,207,578
Less than estimated - - -	1,601,122

This must be admitted to be a very serious disappointment in the produce of an important branch of the resources; it is to be attributed principally to the small vent of piece goods in the year, arising from the necessity of deferring the sale which usually took place in February, to the month of March; likewise to the loss of the ship Prince of Wales with a valuable cargo, and the short supply of goods from Bengal. On teas, raw and organzine silk, also drugs, sugar, &c. the actual sales exceeded the estimated.

Receipt on sales, 1804-5, estimated at - - - - - - -	£6,598,496
actually amounted to - -	5,730,133
Less than estimated - - -	868,363
Charges and profit on private trade, estimated at - - - -	150,000
amounted to - - - - - -	90,536
Less than estimated - - -	59,464

In order to meet the extensive demands of the year, it was requisite to have recourse to extraordinary funds. A loan was obtained from government out of the tea duties, to the amount of £500,000; the sum of 100,000 was borrowed from the Bank; and bonds, amounting to £411,975, having been paid in upon the sales instead of cash (a circumstance which always occurs when the bonds bear a discount) an issue was made to the extent of £979,500. The effect of these several circumstances was; the funds of which the Company were able to avail themselves for the purposes of the year, were £7,622,337, exceeding the estimate in the amount already shewn. The gross actual expenditure of these funds on the immediate account of the Company was £7,606,381: of this amount, £4,173,409 was for a direct supply to the foreign concern, by payment of bills of exchange and consignment in goods,

stores, and bullion, which together exceeded the estimated supply by £359,604. The exports were less by £71,817; and the payment of Indian debt, which was calculated upon the principles prescribed by the act at £500,000, was less by £480,013. The purchase of bullion being more by £894,248, and the payment of bills by £17,186, occasioned the difference which has been stated.

Balance of cash, in favour of the Company on 1st March, 1805, estimated at - - - - - - -	£157,634
actually proved to be - - -	12,020
Less than estimated - - -	145,614

The balance of cash against the Company, 1st March, 1806, is estimated to be £62,836.

DEBTS AT HOME.

Home debt, 1st March, 1804,	4,788,865
Ditto 1st March, 1805,	6,012,196
Increase - - - - - - -	1,223,331

ASSETS AT HOME.

1st Mar. 1804, the amount was	19,168,736
1st March, 1805, - - -	20,442,659
Increase - - - - - - -	1,273,923

Deducting the increase of the debt at home, - - - - - -	1,223,331
from the increase of assets, -	1,273,923
The improvement of the home concern is - - - - - - -	50,592

CHINA AND ST. HELENA.

31 Jan. 1803, balance at China against the Company	260,900	
29 Jan. 1804, in favour	182,390	
Improvement -		443,290
30 Sept. 1802, balance of the books at St. Helena in favour - - - -	105,194	
30 Sept. 1803 in favour	105,382	
Improvement -		188
Total, China and St. Helena -		443,478

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE DEBTS AND ASSETS, by the last year's accounts, and those of the year now under examination.

Increase of debt in India - - -	2,666,984	3,890,315
Increase of debt at home, - - -	1,223,331	
Increase of assets in India, - - - -	1,833,720	3,551,121
Increase of assets at home, - - -	1,273,923	
Improved balances at China & St. Helena	443,478	

Deducting increase of assets from the increase of debt, the deterioration in the whole concern in 1803-4 abroad, and 1804-5 at home, will be - - - - -	£339,194
But it will be necessary, in this place, to make some adjustments: for this purpose, add the amount received in India, and inserted in quick stocks from thence, 30th April, 1804; the value of exports from England, which was included in the cargoes afloat outwards, in the assets at home, *viz.* 583,299	
Goods in export warehouses in India, 30th April, 1804, included in quick stock accounts and in assets at home - - - 43,619	626,918
Amount of deterioration will be	966,112

The year 1802-3, which had been expected to afford the most favorable result, with regard to revenue and charge, and to produce a considerable sum for the liquidation of the existing debt, did in fact produce a surplus revenue to the amount of near a million sterling, including the sum paid to the commissioners of the Sinking Fund.

It is not requisite, in this place, to enter into any detail of the political circumstances which occurred at the end of the year 1802, nor of the events which led to the extensive scale of military operations which took place at a subsequent period: it is only necessary to advert to them, for the purpose of remarking, that their effect has been to defeat the plan devised for the liquidation of debt, and to absorb the surplus revenue to that degree, that for 1803-4 it was only estimated to amount to £121,835. The actual accounts exhibit a much more unfavourable view, in stating a surplus charge of £1,779,884, including £140,436, for interest paid to commissioners of Sinking Fund, which sum being appropriated to the farther liquidation of debt cannot be considered as an available resource.

The variations between the estimated and actual charges for 1803-4, on the general result, is as follows:

The estimate calculated on a surplus revenue of - - - - - - -	£121,835
By the actual accounts a surplus charge has been shewn to the extent of - - - - - - -	1,779,884
Difference, in an unfavourable view - - - - - - - -	1,901,719

The aggregate of the actual revenues was less than estimated by 199,000, and of the charges more than estimated by £1,702,312. The deficiency of revenue arose partly in

Bengal, the collections from Oude being less than in the preceding year, at which period some extraordinary payments had been made; and in a great measure at Madras, from a considerable defalcation, in consequence of the unfavourable season of 1803-4. The collections in the Bombay districts were more considerable. Of the increased charge, £1,308,000 belongs to the military, from the continuance of the war expenses to an extent beyond what was expected when the estimate was framed. Of this sum above a million is in the increase at Madras. The sum of £394,000 is still to be accounted for: of this £192,000 is in the additional expense in the Oude provinces, and £91,000 chiefly in the settlement of Balambangan, not included in the estimate; the remainder in a variety of civil, judicial, and revenue expenses.

Actual surplus charge, 1803-4	£1,779,884
The estimate for 1804-5 -	1,734,184
Estimated more favourable than actual, - - - - - - - -	45,700

In this year a larger receipt of revenue is calculated by £285,000. The general charges are estimated less by nearly £20,000; but the interest calculated to be payable on additional debt reduces it to the amount just stated. The military expenditure is not estimated at so large a sum as that in the last year. I am sorry, however, to be under the necessity of observing, that doubts, infinitely too well founded, are entertained respecting the estimated charges. These doubts acquire additional strength, from the estimate for the year 1805-6. Excluding the commercial charges from this estimate, in order to carry on the comparison upon a principle similar to those already made, it will appear, that the result of 1805-6 shews a surplus charge of - - - - - - - - 2,456,151
Adding amount of interest payable to commissioners of Sinking Fund 195,788

The total deficit is - - - - 2,651,939

which is more unfavorable than the result estimated for 1804-5, by £917,755.

The principles upon which this result is produced are as follow, *viz.*

Revenues.—Bengal,	8,763,220	
Madras, - - -	4,774,296	14,279,533
Bombay, - -	742,017	
Charges.—Bengal,	7,415,370	
Madras, - - -	5,650,182	14,645,844
Bombay, - -	1,580,292	
Net charge - - - - -		366,311
Add—Supplies to Bencoolen, Prince of Wales Island, &c. -		266,800
Total surplus charge - - -		633,111

Total surplus charge, - br. for.		£633,111
Add--Interest on debts	1,823,040	
Interest payable to commrs. of Sinking Fund on securities redeemed -	195,788	2,018,828
Result, in excess of charge, as already stated, - - - - -		2,651,939

The revenues of 1805-6 are estimated at a larger amount by £721,024, by including revenues of conquered districts. The charges are greater by £1,638,779. A material part of this sum is in military expenses; but the precise amount is not distinctly stated in the estimate. The charges on revenues of conquered provinces must be supposed to make a considerable part in the increase, also the additional amount of interest payable on debt.

The home concern undoubtedly requires the attentive consideration of the house. The immense demands for the exigencies of the government in India must necessarily confine the commercial exertions in that part of the world; the investments must consequently be limited: the sources of supply, therefore, for the home treasury are materially affected. In stating the home concern for 1804-5, after defraying the usual demands for dividends, territorial charges, &c. and taking credit for the profits of all descriptions, a deficit appears to the amount of £418,540; and it is presumed it cannot amount to less for the year corresponding with the Indian estimate for 1805-6, *viz.* 1806-7, or the current year.

On these principles the excess of charge abroad and at home, for the years last mentioned, must be computed at three millions sterling.

From these remarks it is sufficiently obvious that funds must have been derived from loans raised abroad or at home. The increase in the foreign debt to April, 1804, has been noticed: the additional account shews a further increase to April, 1805. The general account is made up for Bengal to January 31st; for Madras and Bombay to April 30th, 1805. It appears by a memorandum, that the debt bearing interest at Bengal, 30th April, 1805, was more by £358,183. This amount was properly left out of the total of the gross debt, as the alteration that had taken place in the floating debt, or the part not bearing interest, between January and April, could not be ascertained, but as properly, included in the statement of the debt bearing interest on 30th April, 1805.

Comparative amount of debt, 1804 *and* 1805.

Amount of debts, 30 April, 1804	22,536,207
Ditto, 1805 - - - - -	25,046,434
Increase - - - - - - -	2,510,227

Debts bearing interest, 30th April, 1804 - - - - -	£19,031,934
Ditto, 1805 - - - - -	21,604,967
Increase - - - - - -	2,573,033
Interest payable on debt, 30th April, 1804 - - - - -	1,588,389
Ditto, 1805 - - - - -	1,821,570
Increase of interest - - -	233,181

The debt outstanding in India bearing interest, in April 1805, has been stated to amount to £21,604,967. Of this sum it appears, that £17,567,162 may eventually become payable in England, at the option of the holders of the securities. It is difficult to say, in what manner they may exercise their option; but it is probable, that at no very distant period demands may fall upon the home treasury to a considerable amount: and though, under the terms of the loans, the Court of Directors are enabled to protract the payment, in some instances, for one or two years, yet extraordinary measures must probably be resorted to, for the purpose of meeting the obligations as they respectively become due. Although the amount of the optional loans is stated to exceed seventeen millions sterl., it does not by any means follow, that it will all of course fall upon the home treasury. The decennial loans becoming due in 1809 and 1810, amounting to £3,820,762, may perhaps be made payable in England. The part of the eight per cent. loans subscribed since 1800, may also be transferred home; but the amount is not exactly stated. The remainder of the sum of £13,746,400, which falls under the terms of the subscription or transfer to Europe, authorised by order of the Court of Directors in 1793, by bills at 548 days date, at the exchange of 1*s.* 11*d.* the current rupee, 7*s.* 8*d.* the star pagoda, and 2*s.* 2½*d.* the Bombay rupee, cannot be shewn with perfect correctness. The original institution of this plan took place in 1785, at a lower rate of exchange, which was afterwards increased. The committee are aware, it has been totally superseded by the present Sinking Fund. When the rate of exchange is compared with the other more advantageous modes of remitting the fortunes of individuals to Europe which are now open, it does not appear very probable that many will avail themselves of this mode of transfer.

Having stated the reverses which the financial system of the Company has experienced from encreased expenditure and additional debt, some information might be expected, as to the remedies proposed, and plans recommended, by which the overbearing expenses might be met, investments might be provided, and the great difficulties of the financial situation of the Company might, in some degree, be obviated. That this is a subject of serious importance, not only to the Court of Directors and to those to whom the administration of the government of India is delegated, but to parliament and the country, does not admit of contradiction. It is well known, that considerable retrenchments in expenditure, and reductions in various establishments in India, are now in progress. The more proper time, however, for bringing this subject before the House will arrive, when complete documents shall be received from India, from which more accurate calculations can be drawn, of the extent to which it may be practicable to carry into effect the various measures of retrenchment and reform. The farther consideration of this point is, therefore, proposed to be deferred till the next sessions, when the accounts due this year, of which a complete series is not yet arrived, shall be upon the table of the House, and when an early opportunity may be taken of bringing before parliament the most ample information upon these interesting and important topics.

If, in alluding to the political events which have lately occurred in India, I do not endeavour to occupy the time of the committee, I trust that I shall not be supposed to be insensible of their magnitude and importance: they are, however, so completely within the knowledge of every gentleman, that it is unnecessary to dwell upon them for any considerable time. It appears from the dispatches of Sir G. H. Barlow, that the treaty which was concluded with Scindia, in November, 1805, having been ratified by him, has been since ratified by Scindia. Its principal points consist in establishing the river Chumbul as the northern boundary of the territory of Scindia, in a line drawn from Kotah to Gohud; and in a renunciation, on our part, of all interference with the petty states on the western bank of the Jumna, that may have been formerly tributary to Scindia. The last event of considerable importance is the treaty concluded with Holkar. It appears that Lord Lake having reversed the line of march of the old conquerors of Hindostan, pursued the fugitive to the second river of Panjab, with a degree of vigor and energy which has marked all his military exertions, and placed him in a situation from which it was difficult for him to retreat, and impossible to advance, without almost the certainty of defeat. The consequence has been, the conclusion of a treaty of peace, by which Holkar is restored to a considerable part of his ancient territory. He has thus regained, by our generosity, what he had forfeited by persevering and determined hostility. I will not, at present, enter into any discussion of the treaties, as they are not regularly before the House; but will merely say, that though there may be

points that might justify observation and remark, they are advantageous and honorable to the English name, and calculated to place the pacification of India on a solid and permanent foundation.

In endeavouring to perform the duty I have undertaken, I am aware that the task is ungracious, and the prospect I have been under the necessity of exhibiting is by no means of a brilliant or animating appearance. My object has been, to give a correct statement of the affairs of the Company; and though I should be one of the last persons to endeavour to embody forms of visionary wealth and ideal prosperity, yet, on the other hand, I should be unwilling to give way to unmanly and unavailing despondency. The resources of India, as far as I have been able to examine the subject, appear to me great, powerful, and extensive. Much, I trust, may be affected by economy. I do not, however, mean that species, which would merely restrict and retrench the hard-earned provision of laborious merit, the wages of honest and honorable service, nor even that species which would materially affect and impair the dignity and representation of executive power: such reform, and such economy, might only have the effect of diminishing the respect that is due to government, and might enfeeble the administration of authority which it was intended to confirm and invigorate. Much, I trust, may be effected by a prudent and judicious system of economy, acting upon more enlarged and enlightened principles, which must be applied to the collection as well as the disbursement of revenues, and which in its equal, impartial, and unerring operation, must pervade all branches of the administration. But it is not economy alone that will have the desired effect; it must be combined with the mild and moderate, at the same time the firm, steady, and unrelaxed exercise of legitimate authority: it must be combined with the anxious and unremitting endeavour to consult the wants and conciliate the affections of that extended population, which as it owns the influence, as it acknowledges the ascendancy of this country, so it ought to experience the advantages of our alliance, and the benefit of our protection:—it must, in short, be combined with those principles of moderation and justice, which as the surest line of policy, and the most stable foundation of greatness, ought ever to be interwoven in the practice, and ever inherent in the name and character of Britain.

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Our readers will have observed with concern the calamitous effect of the droughts on the East Indian Presidencies.—We are extremely sorry to report, that our last advices from India are not more favourable; as appears by the following extracts from the Calcutta Gazettes.

Calcutta, Tuesday, 13th May, 1806.

We understand that the want of rain, since the end of March, has been very detrimental to indigo planters in the southern districts of Bengal, *viz.* Jessore, Kilhengar, &c. How the season has turned out in Behar and Benares, we are not informed. The cultivation there being mostly by rattoon crops, the want of rain may not prove so injurious as in the southern districts, where the crop is raised from spring sowing. The fall of rain has been so long protracted, that it is problematical whether the late sowing will produce a crop to cover charges; unless indeed, the remainder of the season is uncommonly propitious. The drought has occasioned much failure in lands sown in March, and the consequent demand for seed to *re-sow*, has enhanced the price greatly, as far we understand as 160 rupees per maund. We are inclined to conclude from present appearances, that the general supply of the present season, will be *scanty*, and consequently, that indigo will support high prices. It is probable also, that indigo of the last crop, if any remains in hand, may shortly experience an advance, unless the prospects of the ensuing crop improve.

Tuesday, 20th May.

In confirmation of what we advanced in our last Tuesday's paper, we publish the following extract of a letter from Tirhoot.

"I believe we shall never get another shower of rain, and all indigo is much stinted in its growth, in consequence of the drought."

Our information, as stated before, only extended to the district of Jessore and Bisnagar, and the country to the south of the great river. We are sorry to observe from the above, that the drought has extended to Tirhoot. Since the rain, near the time of the equinox, scarcely any had fallen for a period of forty days. Such an interval of drought, we know must be very detrimental to indigo crops, and considerably diminish the returns. It must cause a great part of the spring sowing to perish, and consequently make a re-sowing necessary, at this advanced period of the season. It is, we believe, a general rule with the planters, to prognosticate an indifferent season, if the generality of the crop is not sufficiently *rooted* by the end of April. The proper business after the 15th of April, is *weeding*, and not *sowing*, and if there is much land to sow after that date, sanguine expectations of a good crop, by those at all acquainted with the cultivation, cannot be entertained; and therefore in the first week in May, a general agricultural estimate of returns may be formed.

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE AT BOMBAY.

The sentiments expressed in the following address are so proper and suitable to the occasion, and, besides, contain such general principles of honour, that we take a pleasure in publishing it at length. The issue is extremely creditable to the justice of the British nation in India, and especially to SIR JAMES MACINTOSH, the dignified minister of that justice at the Presidency of Bombay.

(Bombay Courier, 3d May, 1806.)

Recorder's Court. April, 22.

This day came on the trial of lieutenants Cautey and Macguire, for a conspiracy to waylay and ill-treat two Dutch gentlemen, named Vandersloot, on the night of the 21st of February last.

A jury having been chosen, the Honourable Company's counsel addressed them, at some length, on the part of the crown. He observed, that it could not fail to be an extremely painful discharge of his duty to the public, to be obliged to call their attention to the conduct of persons, whose profession placed them in the rank of gentlemen, while their actions degraded that character, and were a disgrace to the cloth which they had the honor to wear.

The persons mentioned in the indictment as the objects of brutal attack and violence, were also gentlemen, sons of an aged and respectable inhabitant of Cochin, who formerly held the rank of surgeon-major in the Dutch service. Their object in coming to Bombay, was to obtain redress, by legal means, for wrongs which they and their family conceived themselves to have sustained, when the regiment to which Lieutenant Cautey belongs was quartered at Cochin—wrongs of a most outrageous nature, and in which they accounted that gentleman a principal actor. They had accordingly commenced a suit against him, which was still pending; and it greatly aggravated the guilt of the conduct charged in the indictment, that the defendants made no secret of its being in revenge of these proceedings that they had formed the resolution of assaulting the Messrs. Vandersloots in the dead of night, on the King's highway, and, for that purpose, to watch their return to their own house, which is situated in the woods, about a mile from the fort. To obtain an additional levy, they repaired to a tent, where some brother-officers were at dinner, and having dismissed the native attendants, proceeded to unfold their base and nefarious design, and to solicit aid in carrying it into execution. They at first obtained an assent to their proposal; but, on second thoughts, these gentlemen conceived it quite as proper to remain at home. Whether they were informed of this defection from their number or not, did not appear; certain it was, that they themselves (accompanied by one, whose youth and inexperience seemed to have placed him under the complete controul of persons anxious to reduce him to the degraded level of their own depravity) proceeded most gallantly to the woods, not only armed with sticks and bludgeons, but with fire-arms likewise; and that the King's and Honourable Company's uniform might not, for the first time, be worn by midnight assassins, they had the grace, or, more properly speaking, the precaution, to sally forth disguised in coloured clothes.

To the last hour of their lives they, probably, would have reason to be thankful to Providence, that, by some means or other, the Dutchmen passed to their own home, without being perceived; for if a rencontre had taken place, nothing seemed more probable than that blood would have been spilt. But though such a fate had been averted, it would be the duty of the jury, and their satisfaction also, to shew their sense of what had actually happened, by finding a verdict for the conspiracy to assault, if the case on that head was made out against them. It would then be for the Court to assert its insulted dignity, by its sentence on such offenders.

The evidence fully confirmed every part of Mr. Threipland's opening. It particularly appeared that the defendants carried loaded fire-arms to the woods: and an expression of Mr. Macguire's was positively sworn to, that "if the Dutchmen proved *obstropulous*, he "had a pair of *poppers* at their service."

The defence attempted to shew, that though a purpose of the kind had been entertained in the early part of the evening, it had been abandoned before the party set out for the woods, where their only attraction was a punch-house, at which uncommon good ham could be procured for supper, while the expected attacks of *Pariar dogs*, in their progress thither, afforded an excuse for proceeding armed. This defence altogether failed. The jury, after an eloquent and most impressive charge from the Honourable the Recorder, returned a verdict of *Guilty* against both defendants.

Mr. Threipland then moved that they might stand committed, which was ordered accordingly, and that they be brought up to receive sentence on Wednesday the 30th.—On which day, the Court being moved for judgment on the part of the crown, and nothing having been alleged to arrest the same, or in mitigation of punishment, except the sentence of a court-martial, published the day before, by which it appeared, that both defendants were dismissed the service for a dif-

ferent offence, the Honourable the Recorder addressed them to the following effect:

Bryan Maeguire and George Cautey, you have been convicted of the offence of conspiring to way-lay and assault by night, two unarmed foreigners, John and Jacob Vandersloot; and it appears that you lay in wait for them, to execute your design, with the assistance of two other persons, all of you armed with bludgeons, pistols, or muskets. Your avowed motive for this project of barbarous revenge was, that one of these foreign gentlemen had brought an action against one of you in this Court. The observations which you have now made on the evidence in support of this charge would have been too late, even if they had been new or important. I am not the judge of evidence—that is the province of the jury, and after their verdict, I can see only with their eyes, and hear only with their ears. But, in fact, you have only now repeated the observations which you made on your trial, which I then stated to the jury, and which, in my opinion, they did well to disregard.

It is now, therefore, my duty, to pronounce the judgment of this Court upon you, and I should content myself with the above short statement of the nature and circumstances of your offence, if I were not induced to make some observations, by some faint hope of being useful to you, and by a strong sense of the duty which any man of experience owes to the numerous inexperienced young men, such as I see around me, who are deprived so early of parental guidance, and who may see, in your deplorable, but most instructive example, how easily conviviality may degenerate into excess, and how infallibly habitual excess, with its constant attendant, bad society, leads to such unhappy situations, as those in which you now stand.

I know that the brutish vice of drunkenness, with all the noisy and turbulent vices which follow in her train, has a false exterior of spirit and manliness, which sometimes seduces weak and ignorant boys.—Not that this can be said in this case. A plan for overpowering two defenceless men, under cover of darkness, with more than double their numbers, armed with deadly weapons, can have nothing attractive to any but such as are "the stain of manhood and of arms."

But I know that the mischievous character from which such acts spring, sometimes dazzles and allures inexperienced eyes. Let me rub off a little of the varnish which hides from them its deformity. A disposition to engage in quarrels and broils, is not, as they may suppose, a mere excess of the martial spirit which is to actuate them on greater occasions: it is the very reverse of it. It is as unmilitary as it is unsocial and immoral. It is an offence against the first principle which holds armies together. It is a violation of that prompt, eager, active obedience to authority, far more necessary in armies than any other bodies of men, and without which they must speedily degenerate into a ferocious rabble. One of the greatest and wisest of men has, in one comprehensive sentence, concentrated every thing that can be said on the relation of an army to the internal order of the state. "An armed disciplined body is dangerous to liberty: an armed undisciplined body is dangerous to society itself." Much more is this turbulent disposition inconsistent with the peculiar character of a British soldier. That which distinguishes him, not only from a mere ruffian, but from a mercenary slave, is, that he has taken up arms to protect the rights of his fellow-citizens, and to preserve the public quiet. He is an armed minister of the laws, and we expect from him a peculiar affection and veneration for those unarmed laws and magistrates whom he has girt on his sword to protect. Every true soldier must have too great a reverence for the noble virtue of courage, to sully and degrade it in the wretched frays of sottish ruffians. It is reserved for nobler objects; he will not prostitute it on such vile and ignoble occasions. True fortitude is too serious, too grave, too proud a quality to endure such degradation. Such vices are most unofficer-like, because they are most ungentleman-like. As long as courage continues to be one of the distinctive qualities of a gentleman, so long must the profession of arms be regarded as the depository and guardian of all the feelings and principles which constitute that character. A gentleman is a man of more refined feelings and manners than his fellow-men.—An officer is, or ought to be, peculiarly and eminently a gentleman. But there is nothing so low and vulgar as the fame of a bully, and the renown of midnight brawls. They imply every quality of a highwayman but his courage, and they very often lead to his fate.

In considering the punishment to be inflicted on you, I observe that you build some hopes of mercy on your dismissal from the service, by the sentence of a court-martial, for other offences. As these offences have proceeded from the same wretched vice of disposition which has placed you at this bar, I am not unwilling to consider them as part of the visitation which your mischievous turbulence has already brought upon you, and therefore as some justification for mild punishment, to a Court which eagerly looks out for such justifications. It has been my fate, in this place, to be obliged to justify the lenity, rather than the severity of the penalties inflicted here. I think it is likely to continue so. I have more confidence in the certainty than in the severity of punishment. I conceive it to be the first duty of a criminal

judge, to exert and to strain every faculty of the mind, to discover, in every case, the smallest possible quantity of punishment that may be effectual for the ends of amendment and example; I consider every pang of the criminal, not necessary for these objects, as a crime in the judge. And, in conformity with these principles, I was employed in considering the mildest judgment which public duty would suffer me to pronounce on you, when I learned, from undoubted authority, that your thoughts towards me were not quite of the same nature. I was credibly, or rather certainly, informed, that you had admitted into your minds the desperate project of destroying your own lives at the bar, where you stand, and of signalizing your suicide by the previous destruction of, at least, one of your judges.* If that murderous project had been executed, I should have been the first British magistrate who ever stained with his blood the bench on which he sat to administer justice. But I can never die better than in the discharge of my duty. When I accepted the office of a minister of justice, I knew that I must be unpopular among the enemies of justice—I knew that I ought to despise unpopularity and slander, and even death itself.—Thank God! I do despise them; and solemnly assure you, that I feel more compassion for the gloomy and desperate state of minds, which could harbour such projects, than resentment for that part of them which was directed against myself.

It is my duty to remind you, that your despair is premature and groundless. At your age, in a new society, where you may not be followed by the memory of your faults, you may yet atone for them, and regain that station in society, to which the fond hopes of your unfortunate relations had, probably, at parting, destined you. The road which leads back to character and honour is, and ought to be, steep, but ought not to be, and is not, inaccessible.

On the other hand, if any of the comrades of your excesses be present, any of those who have been arrested, on the brink of destruction, by their penitence, or by their timely fears, or by fortunate accidents, or by the mercy of others, I most earnestly conjure them never to forget the situation in which they this day see you.—Let those who stand take heed lest they fall. The declivity is slippery from the place where they stand to that where you lie prostrate.

I should consider myself as indelibly disgraced, if a thought of your projects against me were to influence my judgment. That, however, I believe you yourselves will scarcely suppose.

The judgment of this Court is—that you, the said Bryan Maeguire and George Cautey, be, for this your offence, imprisoned in the Gaol of Bombay, for twelve calendar months.

* The Recorder's private information of this atrocious, and almost incredible project, must, of course, have been confidential, and therefore can never be disclosed. Many gentlemen saw in the hands of the Sheriff the arms which had been seized on B. Maeguire.—They consisted of four pistols, of various dimensions, three of them double-barrelled, in a case *made to resemble a writing-desk*; which he had with him in Court on the day of this trial, under pretence of carrying his papers. The pistols were loaded *with slugs*, in a manner for which, in this island, it is not easy to assign an innocent motive.

PROPOSITA PHILANTHROPICA.

——Homo sum,
Humani nihil a me alienum puto.

SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING CHRISTIAN KNOWLEDGE.

The Annual Report of this Society, which has recently been published, states the number of children taught in the charity-schools in and about London and Westminster, to be 7108, viz. 4180 Boys, and 2928 girls, and the number of books which have been distributed by them during the preceding year to be as follows, viz. 8,490 bibles, 11,466 new testaments and psalters, 16,096 common prayers, 20,460 other bound books, and 112,440 small tracts.

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REV. MR. BASIL WOOD'S EXERTIONS IN FAVOUR OF THE EDINBURGH MISSION TO TARTARY.

The Rev. B. Wood writes to the Christian Observer, that, after reading the last report of the Edinburgh mission to Karass, he could not forbear mentioning it to some friends in the congregation at Bentinck Chapel, who suggested the idea of his reading that passage from the pulpit. "This I accordingly did on the 12th instant, and mentioned, that, if any present were disposed to join to add a trifle to the relief of these poor children, I should be very happy to be their almoner in so good a cause. I have the pleasure to state that donations were made in the course of the week, far beyond my expectation, and a solicitation was received that the plates might be held at the chapel doors on Sunday, the 19th instant. I therefore felt very happy in meeting this charitable request, and preached from Deut. i. 39.—"Your little ones which ye said should be a prey, and your children, which in that day had no knowledge between good and evil, they shall go in thither, and unto them will I give it, and they shall possess it."

I have, by the blessing of God, the pleasure to make the following return:

	£.	s.	d.
Donations received	51	10	6
Collected in the plates . . .	71	0	0
Donations for redeeming two Tartar slaves at £25 each .	50	0	0
Four annual subscriptions . .	4	4	0
	£176	14	6

Glory to God in the highest, peace on earth, good will to man.

Paddington, I am, yours, &c.
Oct. 25. 1806. BASIL WOOD.

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HIBERNIAN SOCIETY.

Extracts from the Report of the Committee of the Hibernian Society, for the Diffusion of Religious Knowledge in Ireland.

The province of Connaught, which comprehends several counties in the west of Ireland, seems to be the most destitute of religious instruction of any part of Ireland.

The province of Munster, which comprises several counties in the south, appears, next to Connaught, the most destitute. In the counties of Waterford, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, Wexford, and Carlow, there are very few Sunday Schools, and those badly attended. The proportion of Papists to Protestants in these counties is twenty to one. Scarcely any of the former, and but few of the latter, possess copies of the Scripture.

The province of Leinster, though much more favourably circumstanced than the other provinces, is stated to be in some places destitute of all means of acquiring religious instruction. In the county of Kilkenny, in this province, there is a monthly meeting of clergymen of the Established Church, whose zeal has stirred up very many, and whose exertions have been attended with blessed effects.

The province of Ulster, more generally called the North, is by far the most enlightened part of Ireland.

Many difficulties stand in the way of the establishment of Sunday Schools, as most of the Roman Catholic priests are hostile to them; but, in many instances, these difficulties have been overcome. Much depends on the character and prudence of the teacher. Many of the Protestants would send their children,

As children in the south have no employment, it is thought that week-day schools would meet with more encouragement there.

The annual expense of supporting a free school for instructing fifty children on working-days, in reading, writing, and arithmetic, would, in some places, amount to £20, where part of the parents would pay for their children: in other places, between £30 and £40. In some places, a salary of £10 would induce gentlemen to contribute the remainder. Some judicious correspondents recommend, that all the children should pay a small sum; which would cause the school to be better attended than if it were entirely or in part free.—Vide Mr. Carr's opinion: Panorama, p. 698.

It is thought that no persons qualified to teach these schools could be obtained in the south; that some might be had in the north of Ireland; but that teachers from England would be preferable to either. In many places the disposition of persons of property and influence is friendly to the improvement of the inferior class of inhabitants.

It is thought that many of the Roman Catholics would thankfully receive and eagerly read the Scriptures, could they obtain them: at the same time, it is to be feared, that many of their priests would exert their influence to prevent them.

Under the auspices of the Society, bibles and testaments, to the number of several hundreds, gratuitously sent by the public, have been forwarded to Ireland, to be distributed by persons in whom the Committee can most implicitly confide.

The Committee have also paid great attention in forming a plan for instituting schools in every parish in Ireland; in which, as it respects religious instruction, no tract or catechism of any religious sect or party is to be introduced,—but the Holy Scriptures only.

Proposed Means of Support:—1, Land proprietors to furnish ground for houses and schoolmasters:—2, Houses to be built by the parishes:—3, Subscriptions by the inhabitants:—4, Money to be paid by scholars:—5, Amount of subscriptions, donations, and bequests.

It is to be lamented, that the state of Ireland has not made that impression on the minds of those who profess Christianity, which its wretched circumstances were calculated to produce.

*** Subscriptions and donations will be thankfully received by the Treasurer, SAMUEL MILLS, Esq. No. 20, Finsbury Place.

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FREE SCHOOL FOR JEWISH CHILDREN IN LONDON.

A Committee of the Directors of the Missionary Society, which superintends the attempts now made for the conversion of the Jews, design shortly to open a Free-School, for the instruction of the children of that people; and have circulated the following notice:

"The posterity of Abraham are respectfully informed, That a Free-School for the instruction of their children, both male and female, will be opened under the patronage of a Society of Christians, at No. 5, Raven Row, Artillery Lane, Spitalfields, on Monday, the 5th of January, 1807.

" Application for admission to be made before the opening of the school, at the school-house, on Tuesday morning, from ten to one o'clock; and after that time, every day (Sundays excepted) during the school-hours.

" Grown up females, who wish for instruction, may receive it from ladies, who will attend every day (Sundays excepted) to superintend the girls' school, from the hours of ten to one o'clock."

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BRITISH AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY.

This Society has commenced a correspondence with the Archbishop of Moscow, with a view to the printing of the Scriptures in the Russian language. At present, it is said, Bibles are so scarce, that there is but about one Bible to 16,000 Russians. Compare Panorama, p. 362.

Some well disposed persons in Denmark have begun to print an edition of 2000 copies of the Icelandic New Testament. The Society have voted a sum of money, to enable them to add 3000 more to the number; and intend to assist them hereafter in printing the whole Bible.

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We have intimated to our readers, that it was in contemplation, to attempt some further means for the reformation of a numerous and wretched class of women, who are perishing in their sins. We have now the pleasure to say, that the following notice is in circulation.

ASYLUM FOR UNFORTUNATE FEMALES.

The friends of the intended *London Female Penitentiary* are respectly informed, That a General Meeting will be held on Thursday, the 1st day of January, 1807, at the New London Tavern, Cheapside, at Twelve o'clock precisely, when a Plan will be submitted to their consideration.

W. Alers, J. Butterworth, G. Burder, A. Clarke, R. Cowie, C. Crawford, Rowl. Hill, J. Hughes, Alex. Maitland, S. Mills, G Meyer, T. Pellatt, J. Reyner, C. Sundius, Matt. Wilks, T. Wilson, A. Waugh.

PROPOSITA LITERARIA.

CORRECTION OF AN EXPRESSION OF POPE, OVID. MET. ix. 373.—PROPOSED BY D. L. S.

Mr. Pope, in his translation of the fable of Dryope, appears to have committed an error, by rendering the words of Dryope, on her metamorphosis, as follow:

In *mutual innocence* our lives we led,

alluding to herself and husband.

In the original, we merely find *Vixímus innocuæ*—applying solely to *herself*; but using the plural as a mark of dignity.

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CORRECTION OF A STAGE ERROR. PROPOSED BY FITZ-JOHN.

I beg leave to offer a remark upon a passage in Macbeth, act 1, scene 9, as now used on the stage:

If when 'tis done, it were well done, 'twere well
It were done quickly.

I have seen it as follows:

If it were done, when 'tis done, then 'twere well
It were done quickly;

which I take to be the true meaning of the author; as is more evident by the lines immediately following:

———If th' assassination
Could trammel up the consequence, and catch
With its surcease success, that but this blow
Might be the "Be al" and the "End al" here,
Here only, on the brink and shoal of time; —

Macbeth being represented throughout as a weak man, influenced by his superstition primarily, and urged on by his wife, to the commission of a deed which his duty as a subject, his love as a kinsman, and his honour as an host, revolted at; the innocence and virtues of the King pleading in his breast "like angels, trumpet tongued, against the deep damnation of his taking off." I think the latter lines more proper than those now in use, as I conceive the former to allude only to his dread in executing "well" his bloody commission, while in the latter he contemplates the guilt and the chances of future discovery and dangers in which he involves himself.

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CORRESPONDENCE WITH THE PROPOSITA LITERARIA.

W. G. in answer to T. C. on the opening lines of Cymbeline, proposes to read,

You do not meet a man but frowns: *our bloods*
No more obey-*ing* the heavens, than our courtiers,
Still seem as does the King's.

The sense I think is pretty clear in this way. If every man frowns, it shews that our bloods cannot brook the decisions of Providence, any more than the courtiers can, who perhaps might be as profligate as their brethren in other ages and nations. And as the King was, no doubt, under a cloud of disgust at this period, his *blood*, and those of all his subjects, were likely to beat in unison.

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Fitzjohn on the same subject, observes, I have seen in some editions the following lines, which I think are nearer to the author's meaning:

You do not meet a man but frowns; our *looks*
No more obey *the heart, ev'n than* our courtiers;
But seem as do the King's.

The harshness in the ending of the second line may be easily obviated by a trifling alte-

ration; which, while it adds to the melody of the verse, contributes materially, and I think fully elucidates the meaning of the author. I propose, therefore, to place it as follows:

> You do not meet a man but frowns; our looks
> No more obey the heart *than do* our courtiers;
> But seem as do the King's.

Meaning thereby, that "our looks" (like the looks of our courtiers) speak not the language of the heart by our frowns, which we wear in imitation of the King: but that (like them) we are heartily "glad at the thing we scoul at."

*** If we understood our correspondent T. C. rightly, his proposal went on the supposition that a transposition of words at the end of two long lines was an error very likely to happen, either in the MS. or at the press; it is therefore easily accounted for: but the variations proposed by the present writer, are not only numerous, but appear to be of a kind not likely to occur either in transcription, or in printing. We believe it is now esteemed a part of sound criticism to enquire into the *easiest* and most probable cause of verbal error: and to propose corrections on this principle.

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Our correspondent has added a Latin epigram, written by a Papist, in ridicule of the Synod at Dort; which, though not to be admired for the malice and ill-will it abounds with, may deserve notice for the curiosity of the composition.

Dodraci Synodus?
Nodus.
Chorus integer?
Æger.
Conventus?
Ventus.
Sessio stramen?
Amen.

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X., in answer to W. G. on John xix. 5, observes, that four successive times, during the examination of our Lord, the Roman governor *went out* to the Jews and their rulers, and is represented as addressing himself to the people on his coming forth. The occasion of pronouncing the words under consideration, was the third time of his appearance, and it was after our Lord had suffered the torment of scourging, and the cruel mockery of the imperial crown and purple. The Gentile chief, who, to the shame of the Jews, was so much more just than they, as to "seek to release Jesus" tells the people, "behold, I bring him forth to you, that ye may *know* that *I* find no fault in him." Immediately Jesus appears, wearing the crown of thorns and the purple robe; and what could be more natural than for *Pilate*, as the passage reads, to say, "behold the man?" which is exactly conformable to what he afterwards, when he brought forth Christ again from the Judgment-hall, unquestionably *did*. In verse 14, we find that he again calls the attention of the Jews to the sad appearance of the Redeemer, and saith unto them, "Behold your King!" —the same sentiment as before, only heightened; and almost the same expression, but more offensive.

No person understanding the text in this sense, can thereby, *ea necessitate*, derogate from the grandeur, the inexpressible sublimity of the deportment of God manifest in the flesh—or for a moment wish to "rob him of the merit of a voluntary humiliation." He did, indeed, "*lay down* his life for us all:" but, to all accusations, revilings, and tortures, before the Roman magistrate, he opposed a collected, dignified, and patient *silence*, insomuch that the governor marvelled greatly at his conduct. When he was brought out by Pilate, the second time, to the multitude, we are sure he spake not. I can see no more beauty in his supposed speaking on the first time, than on the second. Besides, surrounded by enemies, to whom was the sufferer likely to address himself? To the governor?—he gave him up to malice, cruelty, and death. To the Jews?—they derided him, and panted for his blood—the Lamb of God was *dumb* before those shearers. To his disciples?—they all forsook him, and fled.

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Another correspondent proposes to place the words descriptive of Jesus' appearance between brackets, and to read the other sentences as one continued speech.

Pilate said, "I bring him forth to you, that ye may know that I find in him no crime. —Behold the man." But it so happened, that in the middle of Pilate's speech, Jesus advanced forward; which point of time is marked by the parenthesis, or bracketed observation of the Evangelist, "*at that instant* came Jesus forth, wearing the crown of thorns," &c.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STATE OF THE SPIRE OF SAINT BRIDE'S CHURCH, LONDON, BEFORE ITS REPAIRS: WITH THE PRINCIPLES ON WHICH THE PINNACLE HAS BEEN RECONSTRUCTED.

The elegant spire of St. Bride's Church, in Fleet Street, has been a subject of admiration among our connoisseurs in Architecture, ever since its erection. It is one of the many churches for which we are indebted to the genius and science of Sir Christopher Wren; who finished it A. D. 1680. In the year 1764 the upper part of this spire was struck by lightning; and it was thought proper to take down about thirty feet of the top, and rebuild it.

In the course of the last year, a stone was observed to project from the upper part of it, in a singular and dangerous manner; which gave occasion to an inspection into the condition of this part of the edifice. A description of the state in which it was found is necessary to a proper understanding of the ingenuity employed in reconstructing it.

The whole of the pinnacle stands on four principal corner stones, called the die stones, with apertures between them. These were cramped together with iron bars; and cross bars of the same metal strengthened the conical part, internally. The exposure of these iron bars in some parts to the humidity of the atmosphere, subjected them to a general oxidation; and the metal expanding in consequence, had raised the great weight of solid stone above it no less than three quarters of an inch; besides cracking off pieces of considerable surface, some of them twelve inches square. This fact, being reported to the Parish committee, by the surveyor employed, appeared so extraordinary, that they deputed some of their members to inspect the pinnacle, who confirmed the report in every point. The whole was therefore ordered to be taken down, and means were thought of how to obviate the evil.

As the mode of connecting the stones by crampings was indispensable, recourse was had to *copper* cramp collars, and chain bars, this metal not being liable to rust, nor swell: and where the expence would have been too great if these bars had been wholly of copper, a socket is cut in the stone, into which a collar of copper entirely lining it, is inserted, and the bended *hook* of iron, part of the iron bar which holds the stone, is bedded and fixed in this copper collar; so that no part of the iron comes into contact with the stone: the remainder of the iron, where it passes along the stone, is surrounded with lead run upon it, of consequence, interposed between the stone and the bar. The other parts of the bar are coated with a surface of thick oil, into which, when in a boiling state, the bars were repeatedly plunged.

Every attention having been thus paid to the exclusion of the atmospherical moisture from the iron, it is hoped that these bars, so defended, will not be subject to rust; but should that happen, it is next to impossible that any part of them, so rusted, should impinge against the stone, and damage it, by cracking off any of its parts from their places. If the iron should swell, the lead would give way a little, and *humour* the figure assumed by the expansion of the bar: and if the oxidation should penetrate so far as to the copper collar, this would effectually protect the stone from injury; partly by its ductility to such pressure, partly by its resistance, or toughness.

The same care is taken throughout this pinnacle, that no iron comes into contact with any stone; but wherever, as in the case of the spindle, which passes through several feet of stone, not less than ten, it has heretofore been united to the stone, now, a coat of lead, at least, covers it like a case, and by its interposition prevents the *rusty* iron, should it ever rust, from having any injurious effect on the stone. Messrs. Robinson and Roper where the architects who conducted these repairs.

We have thought this narrative entitled to a place in our work, because, 1. It may induce architects to examine such parts of buildings as they know to be cramped with iron, which otherwise they might overlook: 2. It may lead them to pay great attention to the proper placing of their cramp bars and collars; that there be a sufficient substance of stone *in all parts*, to defend them effectually from the influence of the atmosphere: 3. The idea of employing *copper* in works exposed to humidity, to currents of water, in bridges, canal works, &c. appears to be peculiarly applicable; and we should think might be adopted with advantage: 4. Perhaps bars of iron, coated with copper, might answer many other valuable purposes; especially in such situations, as great heights, &c. where, though security is absolutely indispensable, yet they cannot be examined without much labour and expense.

We take this opportunity of stating that the report of this pinnacle being lowered six or seven feet, either on this, or the former occasion is merely a deception of sight; there being no reason to conclude that any of the dimensions adopted by Sir Christopher Wren have been departed from. It is greatly to the credit of the mason, that during the whole operation, neither in taking down the former heavy stones, nor in raising the new ones, did any accident happen; not even the parting of a rope, or the cracking of a pane of glass in the adjoining buildings.

POPULAR PROGRESS OF RECONDITE LEARNING.

I'll take a word with this same learned Theban:
What is your study?

King Lear.

A correspondent who describes himself as a native of Iffley, a village about a couple of miles from the university of Oxford, and as having been in his early days singularly delighted with visits to that seminary of learning, and with listening to the nobly-sounding phrases and periphrases in languages which he used to hear when perambulating High Street, or in the college quadrangles, has thought proper to compliment us on the

Greekism of our title, at the same time to complain of sundry innovations in learning to which he finds himself unequal. It does not appear, from his epistle, that he ever received instruction at any of the colleges; though, he says, he once had an offer of being put on one of the foundations; but, the pleasure which his ears experienced in the sonorous expressions of some of the grave gentlemen, and the exquisite modulations of voice among other gentlemen who were not distinguished for gravity, has induced him ever since to watch with attention the progress of learned words, which he supposes to be synonimous with learning, among us.

I was, says he, unspeakably edified in my youth with the pronunciation of the Greek language; and never failed when the university pulpit resounded with a dozen lines of Hesiod or Homer, to stand up, with every mark of admiration! Besides that, many a long pennyworth of erudition have I drawn in by studying what the showman called *Arundelians*; and was perfectly familiar with his *kappathetas*, or tombstones, which tell to a moment, at least so he said, how long the owner lived before he died; and this so many years after his death!

I remember, when I came to settle in London, what they called Latin was the prevalent tongue, and many names of things were derived by John Bull from the dialect of his ancient tyrants the Romans: there was, however, a conflict between the language of those ancient tyrants, and that of our would be modern tyrants, the French: but I saw clearly that the Latin could never stand its ground alone; and happy was I, when the Greek was called in to support it: for the Greeks never conquered us, you know, Sir. We soon expelled French denominations, for how could that frivolous language, or the sing song Italian, cope with the truly majestic appellations of Lyceum, Atheneum, Naumachia, Eidophusicon, Eidouranion, Polygraphicon, Polyplasiasmos, Plocacosmos, Phantasmagoria, or Panorama? what melody! what descriptive signification! what Glossological enunciation! what Cardiphonian emphasis!

Well, Sir, the copious language of Greece promised an inexhaustible supply of sonorous nominatives, capable of infinite metamorphoses, and perfectly ductile to the any thing, and the every thing, of fashion itself. Greek, in short, became so national and familiar, that it composed part of those popular ephemeral essays, our play-bills. How I exulted, when I saw that salubrious stream, the New River, ennobled under the title of Ὠκεανικα, the Ocean itself! in flaring Greek letters several inches in length, cut on purpose, and ornamenting every wall, by order of the learned proprietors of Sadler's Wells!

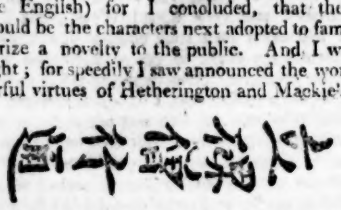
But here, Sir, begins my misery: for those profound erudites perceiving that Greek brought them crowded audiences during a whole season, thought proper on the 20th of March 1805, the day of the vernal equinox, to inform us that, "that most famous dancer of dancers, מגל שוכם would cut his first entrée" that very night! What could I do? I had never seen such characters at Oxford; nor did any body of my acquaintance know their meaning. After walking many a street's length in meditation, I at last discovered in a bill that was level to my eye sight, a note, which informed me, that they were the name of "Miguel Sanchez, the Sevilian Jew." A plague on all Hebrew letters, and all Sevilian Jews, say I, and on all Judaizing Christians, at Sadler's Wells, or elsewhere, for so deep were my cogitations before I made the discovery, that I ran against a post and knocked out two of my teeth, which all the *s'mouses* in the world can never compensate or replace. But, Sir, I am doomed to still further vexation; for of late the elegant Greek stile, which once was every thing, is now abandoned for the Egyptian: we have Egyptian window-curtains, Egyptian lamps, Egyptian letters, Egyptian beds, Egyptian waiters, tea-tables, and tea-boards; Egyptian door-plates, knockers, and knobs; aye, and Egyptian *stove grates*, too: our wine coopers are Egyptian sarcophagi, and a man cannot draw a cork with his friend without reminding him of the tomb—the Serapeum, or the Memnonium, the last repository of the Pharaohs or the Ptolemies.

I learn also to my inexpressible mortification, that after having suffered a defeat of my learning, by my inability to construe a play-bill, I am to be further pestered with Hieroglyphics, directly as the Manager's Coptic Dictionary arrives from Grand Cairo. Sir, I intreat your serious attention to this—for if this rage proceeds as it has begun, I dread, lest we may hereafter meet with phrases employed by our public writers, or perhaps our parliamentary speakers, which being unlike any thing English, may be passed upon us as elegant Copticisms, or figurative Hieroglyphicisms; we may be treated with the very language of Thoth, or Amenophis, of Pharmenoth, and Pharmuthi; *dead* languages surely! for no man living can pronounce or comprehend them!—and these shall be praised as *beauties* in the harangues of My Lord or—Sir John——!'

Not even yourself, Mr. Panorama, can explain the deep import of Kneph, Bubastis, Hermempthe; of the Androsphynges, Arueris, Typhon, Osiris, Isis, and Nepthe: still less of the herb Pemptemphtam, the ser-

pent Upheum, or the birds Baieth, Cucupham, Cicumam: and a million of others, equally dark and mysterious.

As however, I was determined to possess learning enough to read the public papers, if possible, I thought, I would study Sanscrit and Hindoo, and would take a few lessons in the Chinese of my worthy friend, Tqsxotlmzbqua, (now in London, to oblige the English) for I concluded, that these would be the characters next adopted to familiarize a novelty to the public. And I was right; for speedily I saw announced the wonderful virtues of Hetherington and Mackie's



which no language but the Chinese had terms sufficiently energetic to express.

I also understand, that besides a number of Hieroglyphic works expected in circulation for the amusement of the public this winter: that several new founts of Chinese great primer, paragon, cannon, and scrip, are in preparation at a celebrated foundry, not far from St. Luke's; and that there is, worse still! a talk of adopting some of the nail-formed letters, the Persepolitan or Babylonish characters, such as are shewn at the East India House, in those illustrations of the History of England, long promised by an eminent statesman: moreover, because these Persepolitan characters in their original run down the margins of windows, they are expected to look peculiarly beautiful in side notes. As your title, Sir, implies that, Argus-like, you look sharply all round about you, do pray, Sir, see into this: intreat the learned to give me a little time; not to be more obscure than Greek, this winter, and to spare me the mortification of being again invited in vain to peruse a play bill, though addressed to the public at large; or of being left in ignorance of the virtues of the "Ceylon Soap," though the very comfort of my chin may depend on my adopting it without delay.

I am, &c, BARNABY BANTER,

Greek Street, Soho. *Philellenos.*

LIGHT HOUSE AT FLAMBOROUGH HEAD.

The establishment of light houses on our coast, for the advantage of navigation, is gratifying to humanity, while it promotes the security of our commerce. FLAMBOROUGH HEAD, is a considerable promontory in Yorkshire, whose snow-white cliffs have hitherto been the only direction to navigators: but a light house is now erected on it. It is five miles N. E. of Bridlington.

The height of the building from the basis to the summit is eighty-five feet, and from the level of the sea two hundred and fifty feet.—The lanthorn contains three frames, with seven large lamps and reflectors in each making in the whole twenty-one—the lights revolve, and the motion is horizontal—one of the lights is *red*, to distinguish Flamborough lights from all others, and in a clear night, they may be seen at the distance of thirty miles.

On the 1st instant the following oration was delivered by Benjamin Milne, Esq. Collector of his Majesty's Customs at Bridlington, on the Exhibition of these Lights.

Rome, in the plenitude of power, enriched with the plunder of conquered provinces, and elated with pride, erected stately pillars ornamented with exquisite sculpture, to commemorate the achievements of her illustrious citizens; but those splendid embellishments were the ostentatious monuments of an unbounded ambition which grasped at universal dominion, and in the career of victory, extended a wide scene of ruin and desolation. Under the influence of a better principle, and for purposes infinitely more useful, this superb edifice for the exhibition of lights is erected.—It was raised with the benevolent intention of securing the property of individuals, and of preserving human life from the calamities of shipwreck. To the honour of the Elder Brethren of the Trinity-house, Deptford Strond, London, it must be observed, that with laudable zeal they have patronised the undertaking, and completed the building in a stile superior to every other of the same class in the United Kingdom—an eminent display of taste and judgment. The grandeur of its situation on this elevated promontory is unequalled—the sublimity of the prospect must excite the admiration of every beholder—the vast sweep of the northern ocean fills the eye with its immeasurable expanse, and exhibits a scene which inspires exalted ideas. Innumerable fleets laden with the produce of the coal-mines, and rich trading vessels from Scotland, daily pass in view—Ships freighted with naval stores and valuable merchandize, from Archangel, from Norway, the ports of the Baltic, and Holland, and others from the Whale-Fisheries, direct their course to this distinguished promontory. Scenes of this kind are characteristic of national grandeur.—The bold enterprize and mercantile spirit of Britain astonish the world.—The magnitude of her commerce covers the sea with her fleets—her flag waves triumphant in every quarter of the globe—the unrivalled skill, industry, honorable conduct, and opulence of the country, are the solid basis of its stability. Surely, such important interests merit a sedulous attention

to their security.—While you view with complacency the multitude of ships floating on the extended ocean, should you at the same moment take into consideration the immense value of their cargoes, and the many thousands of seamen by which they are navigated, you would then be able to form some judgment of the extensive advantages which must result from the execution of a plan so highly useful and beneficent. If prompted by curiosity, you have ever surveyed the formidable rocks which line the adjacent shore, and have observed the foaming waves of the stormy ocean dashing with irresistible fury against the perpendicular cliffs, the sight alone must have filled you with astonishment and dread!—Figure then to yourselves the melancholy scene of some unfortunate vessel enveloped in midnight darkness, driven by the tempest, and suddenly stranded on the tremendous coast—paint to your imaginations the crew of helpless seamen sinking among the overwhelming billows, and raising their supplicating voices, in vain, for aid!—reflect on the inexpressible agony of their tender connections, deprived in one sad moment of all that is esteemed dear in life, and left perhaps desolate and forlorn, in a state of helpless indigence, to mourn the loss of a husband, a father, or a son!—these are not visionary ideas, they are scenes, alas, which have too frequently been realized.—With such impressions on your minds you must assuredly acknowledge the utility of a design calculated, under Providence, to prevent consequences so wounding to the tender sensibilities of human nature. Had this building been erected at a more early period, the loss of his Majesty's ship the Nautilus, Captain Gunter, from the Baltic, and several of the vessels under her convoy, with many valuable lives, might, in all human probability, have been prevented. From the exhibition of these brilliant lights, innumerable will be the advantages to navigation. I will detail the most prominent—the sight of them will dispel the gloom which frequently seizes the boldest and most skilful navigator, in a critical moment; and direct him, when surrounded by the obscurity of a winter's night, to avoid the dangers of this projecting coast. They will guide the tempest-beaten mariner to the Humber, or to a safe anchorage in Bridlington-bay, famed for its convenience and security—diffusing their friendly lustre afar, they will shine as leading stars to enable ships in a large offing, to ascertain their situations with accuracy, and to take a new departure; and also warn others contending with eastern gales, to keep at a proper distance from the dangers of a lee-shore—to the fishermen, who are frequently exposed to great perils on the unstable element, they will be eminently useful in the night: they will guide them to the proper fishing grounds, and direct them on their return to the shore, to a place of safety. Numerous have been the disasters of this industrious race of men at Flamborough—I am persuaded that many of you who are now present, have witnessed the painful scene of the whole village in mourning!—the lamentations of the disconsolate widow and mother must have pierced your souls—with inexpressible anguish, *I have seen* the tears of the helpless orphan flow for an indulgent parent, who perished in the merciless wave: while I retain the faculty of memory, the sad impression will never be erased; and at this moment it is difficult to restrain my emotions; but the consideration that my humble exertions have been instrumental in promoting a design to prevent those calamities in future, will be a source of satisfaction to me to the remotest period of life. This description of an undertaking so conducive to the security of navigation, will not, I trust, be deemed too highly coloured—the facts are incontrovertible, the utility is indisputable. So long as this noble edifice shall stand unshaken on its firm foundation, and lift its aspiring summit to the view of the admiring spectator, it will remain a conspicuous monument of the humanity and munificence of the British nation, unparalleled by any other of the maritime states on the face of the globe. May the kind Providence of Almighty God favour this and every other effort of national utility with success, and crown with glory the ardent courage and determined resolution of our matchless seamen, in the defence of their native land! While afflicted Europe mourns her desolated provinces and subjugated states, may this United Kingdom, firm in loyalty, in patriotism, and every exalted virtue, oppose an insurmountable barrier to the impetuous torrent which threatens to overwhelm the earth. May Britain ever continue in the envied possession of the empire of the main, and lifting her unclouded head with distinguished lustre amid the gloom, which at this awful crisis, overshadows the world, exhibit to desponding nations a bright example of glory—invincible by every hostile shock, unshaken as the rocks which guard our sea-girt shore.

PROPOSAL FOR EMPLOYING FUMIGATIONS AS A REMEDY FOR CONSUMPTION.

To the Editor of the LITERARY PANORAMA.

SIR;—The following instance of medical heroism cannot be too extensively known; I therefore beg you to insert it at length, and to this I have added, an extract from a French Journal, which is to the same purpose.

An experiment tried at *Carthagena*, not long ago, of the efficacy of anti-contagious

fumigations, has been liberally rewarded by the King of Spain, as stated in the following Royal Decree.

"The King has read the different reports made by Don *François de Bergo*, Commandant General of *Carthagena*, relative to the important and distinguished services rendered by Don *Michel Cabanellas*, during the contagion which made such havoc in that place. His Majesty was especially much pleased with the merits of the experiment tried by Don *Michel Cabanellas*, in the hospital of the Antegones of the same city, where he shut himself up with 50 other persons, to prove the efficacy of the fumigations of Mr. Guyton de Morveau, and slept with every one of those individuals, including two of his own children, in the very same beds in which many victims of the contagion had expired, who had left horrible marks of blood and vomiting: without having used any other preservative than acid mineral fumigations. His Majesty has felt great satisfaction upon being informed that the result had been attended with such success, that the fifty-one individuals after having been strictly confined in the lazaretto, were in a perfect state of health when they left it. In consequence, His Majesty, as a testimony of his Royal munificence, has granted each of the galley-slaves, who have voluntarily submitted to the experiment, without having previously had the yellow fever, to be released from his confinement a twelvemonth sooner than his sentence ordained; and moreover approves of the gratification granted to them by his Captain General. With regard to Don Michel Cabanellas, His Majesty grants him the privileges attached to the situation of physician of the chamber, with an annual pension of 24,000 reals, to be paid monthly, out of the chest of the community of Carthagena; and entitles him to vote with the municipal corporation of that city, as if he were a member by birth. The munificence of the King will also reward the trial to which his two children, after their father's example, have exposed their lives, for the welfare of the state and of their fellow-creatures."

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"This preventive discovered by M. Guyton, is now in universal use in France. M. Desgenettes has been very attentive in ascertaining its efficacy, in the military hospital of Val-de-Grace; and from the comparative returns which he has made, it is evident that these fumigations not only prevent the infection, but appear to be advantageous to the patient.

"Mr. Pinel has met with the same success in the most infected wards of the hospital *de la Salpétrière*."

I would request any of your medical correspondents to inform me whether they have ever known fumigations employed as a remedy against consumptions? I am persuaded that if some composition, equally cheap and familiar as that of the muriatic acid, but supplying that kind of *gas* which is most beneficial to consumptive lungs could be devised, it might prove restorative. I do not mean that it should be inhaled, *in draughts*, like as in certain late experiments: but that a small room should be filled with it, and the patient residing in this room, suppose for several hours in a day, should breathe this air thus impregnated. We all know the effect which the smell of vegetation, when we walk out into the fields, has on us: and the reviving effect of the smell of certain plants. I would, however, caution against the adoption of perfumes, generally: and conceiving, that, in consumption, the lungs part too freely with certain *gases* which abound in the atmosphere, I would propose to try the effect of the vaporisation of substances of the most solid kinds, in which these gases predominate: thereby to restore to the lungs what they too freely part with: or otherwise endeavouring to brace them up, and enable them to retain it, instead of parting with it

Perhaps experiment may lead to the ingredients of a mixture proper for such fumigation. The observation of what trades, &c. are least exposed to this disorder, might assist. The powers of fumigation, as having immediate access to the lungs, are very great: and we know that in the last plague of London, the disorder never penetrated into Bucklersbury, then filled with dealers in herbs, &c. called *simplers*: nor into Petticoat Lane, then occupied by those who burnt various offensive matters, &c. called *horners*. If those trades were salutary by fumigation, and if fumigation be salutary to the extent announced in the Spanish communication, I see no reason why it may not be pushed one degree further, and become salutary by opposing, neutralizing, or correcting that state of the lungs, which appears to be one cause of consumption. Possibly, another kind of mixture might under similar management relieve the asthma.

Yours, &c. SPES.

GREAT EFFECTS FROM LITTLE CAUSES: ISLANDS PRODUCED BY INSECTS.

The whole group of the *Thousand Islands*, and indeed the greater part of all those whose surfaces are flat, in the neighbourhood of the equator, owe their origin to the labours of that order of marine worms which Linnæus has arranged under the name of *Zoophyta*. These little animals, in a most surprising manner, construct their calcareous habita-

tions, under an infinite variety of forms, yet with that order and regularity, each after its own manner, which, to the minute inquirer, is so discernible in every part of the creation. But, although the eye may be convinced of the fact, it is difficult for the human mind to conceive the possibility of insects so small being endued with the power, much less of being furnished in their own bodies with the materials of constructing the immense fabrics which, in almost every part of the Eastern and Pacific Oceans lying between the tropics, are met with in the shape of detached rocks, or reefs of great extent, just even with the surface, or islands already clothed with plants, whose bases are fixed at the bottom of the sea, several hundred feet in depth, where light and heat, so very essential to animal life, if not excluded, are sparingly received and feebly felt. Thousands of such rocks, and reefs, and islands, are known to exist in the Eastern ocean, within, and even beyond, the limits of the tropics. The eastern coast of New Holland is almost wholly girt with reefs and islands of coral rock, rising perpendicularly from the bottom of the abyss. Captain Kent, of the Buffalo, speaking of a coral reef of many miles in extent, on the south-west coast of New Caledonia, observes, that "it is level with the water's edge, and towards the sea, as *steep to* as a wall of a house; that he sounded frequently within twice the ship's length of it with a line of one hundred and fifty fathoms, or nine hundred feet, without being able to reach the bottom." How wonderful, how inconceivable, that such stupendous fabrics should rise into existence from the silent but incessant, and almost imperceptible, labours of such insignificant worms!

Barrow's Voyage to Cochin-China, p. p. 165. 166.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE QUESTIONS PROPOSED BY THE SOCIETY OF SCIENCES AT HAERLEM.

This Society held its fifty-fourth general assembly May 21; but their transactions were very unimportant, owing to the small number of Prize essays come in.

Out of twelve standing questions, only one had found a competent answer; that on the Scotch Pine *(Pinus Silvestris)*, and other trees for the cultivation of dry sandy districts. Of five answers, that of Mr. A. P. C. van der Borch, of Verwolde, near Zutphen, received the prize; and the *accessit* was decreed to an essay in the German language. Of the unanswered questions, some are annulled; some prolonged to November 1, 1807. Seven new questions are proposed against the same time; with others for an indefinite period.

The questions announced as unanswered are the following:—

1st. How much do we know, since the latest advances in the knowledge of the nature of plants, in what manner different kinds of manures, on different soils, encourage the growth of plants? And what instruction can be educed from the knowledge acquired in manuring or fructifying the poor and uncultivated sand districts?

2. What have the latest observations taught, on the influence of the oxygen of the atmosphere, when united with light or not, on the change of colours? and what advantage can be drawn from such knowledge?

3. What do we at present know of the course or motion of the sap in plants and trees? and how can we attain to more perfect knowledge of what is obscure or doubtful therein? Can any useful information be educed for the cultivation of trees and plants, out of what has been proved on this subject by experiments?

4. As experience from time to time teaches us the more fully, that rain-water, which runs through leaden spouts, or stands in leaden cisterns, takes from them so much of the matter of lead as to be very injurious to health (indeed it occasions mortal disorders); and as meats and drinks which by other means are charged with the matter of lead, are injurious to health in various degrees, the Society wishes to see this subject treated in a clear, concise, valid, and, at the same time, full and complete manner; that the means whereby the danger of poison from lead may be avoided, may be more generally known, and as much as possible improved. The Society requires especially, that it be shewn by experiments and observations, in what cases the lead communicates matter to the water? If lead in this or the other manner prepared is less subject to it? If any danger may be apprehended from the use of ceruse, or white lead, in leaden spouts? and further, what is the surest means of counteracting the poison of lead in the use of leaden spouts? That it be shewn, if sufficient proof has been alleged (as was insisted a few years ago) for the assertion, that the glazing of certain pots and dishes communicates lead to some kinds of food, and what means should be taken to obviate this evil?

5. What are the general and certain rules, agreeing with the laws of music, which, in language, accurately define harmony in the pronunciation, and how far does the beauty of language depend thereon?

6. An accurate specification of the suckling animals, birds, and amphibia, which are natural (not introduced from other countries) inhabitants of these countries, with the ad-

dition of their different names in the several districts of the Netherlands, with their generic and specific distinctions, according to the Linnæan System, accompanied with one or more drawings of each animal.

7. What light have modern discoveries, in relation to the combination of water and atmospherical air, thrown on the manner in which plants receive their nourishment; and what instruction can be educed from what is already known on this subject, in the cultivation of useful vegetables?

8. What has experience satisfactorily established with regard to the purification of foul water, and other unclean substances, by charcoal? And how far can we explain the manner in which this takes place, on chemical principles; and what further advantages can be drawn from them?

NEW QUESTIONS.

9. What is properly the difference in properties and elementary parts, between sugar extracted from the sugar-cane, and the slimy sugar-like matter of some trees and plants? does the latter contain real sugar, or can it be transformed into it?

10. What is the cause of the luminous appearance of the sea-water? does this arise from the presence of living animalculæ? What are these animalculæ? and may they have a tendency to communicate to the atmosphere properties noxious to man? It is requested that this may be determined by actual observations or experiments; and that, above all, may be examined, how far the illumination of the sea water, which is very remarkable in some part of our country, may have a connexion with epidemical sicknesses in unhealthy seasons.

11. To remove the uncertainty which exists in distilling the several sorts of vinegar for different uses, as for food, against putrefaction, and in some manufactories, &c. &c. also for the fundamental improvement of the vinegar manufactories, it is asked, what are the peculiar properties and component parts of the different sorts of vinegar which are in use amongst us, and which are either manufactured here or imported from other countries; and how can the strength of the different sorts of vinegar be sufficiently determined in a simple manner, without an extensive chemical apparatus? Which of the kinds of vinegar, according to these chemical experiments, is the fittest for the several uses to which vinegar is applied, and what inferences arise from these enquiries tending to the improvement of the manufacture of vinegar?

12. What is the apparent origin of spermaceti, so called? Can this material be separated from train oil, or produced therein? and can this be done with advantage?

13. As it is a rule in agriculture, confirmed by experience, that different kinds of vegetables should be interchangeably planted on the same soil, and as it is highly important for the growth of vegetables, and to keep up the fruitfulness of the soil, that a proper succession be observed; the Society, therefore, requires, that it be shewn by experiments in agriculture, according to the principles of natural philosophy and chemistry, in what order and succession the different plants grown among us may be cultivated with the most advantage on the same field, on clay, moor, sand, and mixed soils. Especially, what change of herbs, of fodder, and other plants, must be observed on high sandy soils: and principally, when it is nearly broken up, to save dunging, and to exhaust the fertility of the soil as little as possible.

14. What of all the prognostics of a continuance or change of weather may be considered as true, and well established, which are believed to be found in the flight of birds, in the cries and sounds which these or other animals make, and also, from noises made by many kinds of animals? Has experience, in this country, sufficiently confirmed one or the other, so that they may be depended upon? What is doubtful on this subject, or contradicted by experience, in what has been asserted on it; can a reason be given for what we perceive on this subject, from the known nature of the different animals?

15. What diseases are the fruit trees common amongst us subject to? and from what different causes do they for the most part arise, and what are the best means to counteract or heal them?

The period of the following questions is indefinite:

16. What does experience teach on the uses of some animals which appear to be noxious, especially in the Netherlands, and what means are therefore to be observed to extirpate the same?

17. What domestic plants, hitherto little used, may be introduced into our apothecaries' shops, and used with advantage, instead of foreign medicines?

18. What domestic plants, hitherto not used, may be applied as a good and cheap nourishment; and what foreign plants, not used, can be cultivated for this object in this country?

19. What domestic plants, hitherto not used, will yield a good matter of colour, according to proofs made and verified, which may be prepared with advantage and brought into use; and what foreign plants may be cultivated here, especially on poor and uncultivated grounds, which yield with advantage a colouring matter?

The prize is a gold medal, or thirty ducats.

POETRY.

SONETTO DEL CONTE VITTORIO ALFIERI. *Inedito.*

Di libertà Maestri i Galli? Insegni
Pria servaggio il Britanno, insegni pria
Umiltade l'Espano, codardia
L'Elveto, e il Trace a porre infiore i Regni:

Sien dell irto Lappon gli accenti pregni
D'Apollineo soave melodia,
Taide anzi esempio alle donzelle sia
Di verecondi alti pudichi, e degni.

Di liberta Maestri i Galli? Ea nui
Fervide, ardite Italiane menti
D'ogni altro bene apportatrici altrui?

Servi siam, si, ma servi ognor frementi,
E non quai foste, e ancora il siete vui,
Schiavi, al poter, qual ch' egli sia plaudenti.

SONG FROM "HOLBOURNE DROLLERY," &c. LONDON, 1673.

When you the sun-burnt pilgrim see,
Fainting with thirst, haste to the springs;
Mark how at first with bended knee
He courts the chrystal nymph, and flings
His body to the earth, and he,
Prostrate, adores the flowing deity.

But when his sweaty face is drencht
In her cool waves, when from her sweet
Bosom his burning thirst is quencht;
Then mark how with disdainful feet
He kicks her banks, and from the place,
That thus refresht him, moves with sullen pace.

Thus shalt thou be despised, fair maid,
When by thy sated lover tasted;
What first he did with tears invade,
Shall afterwards in scorn be wasted;
When all thy virgin springs grow dry,
And no streams left—but in thine eye.

SONG BY THE LATE MISS MIDDLETON, OF APPLEDORE, DEVON.

My infant years were calm and gay,
No care or pain I knew,
Sweet pass'd the hours, Health crown'd the day,
In happiness they flew;
No anxious thoughts distress'd my mind,
No fears disturb'd my rest,
My wants were few, Content combin'd
To fill with peace my breast.

But now, how chang'd my present lot,
To every former scene;
By Fortune cross'd, by friends forgot,
What bliss can now be seen?
No more returns the happy morn
With every prospect gay,
Joy seems her old abode to scorn,
And wings her flight away.

PROLOGUE TO THE NEW PLAY OF ADRIAN AND ORRILA; OR, A MOTHER'S VENGEANCE. *written* BY I. ST. G. SKEFFINGTON, ESQ. *spoken* BY MR. BRUNTON.

Long has the Stage, determined to impart
Such scenes alone as melibrate the heart,
Barr'd from all avenues, with rigid sway,
Plots which corrupt, and maxims that betray.
With elevation now the alter'd Muse
That praise rejects, which Virtue should refuse:
In Fancy's rose no vivid colour sees,
Unless that vividness the Just can please;
In Wit's gay brilliant owns no sparkling gem,
Unless allow'd as brilliancy by them;
Proud of no praise, of no distinction vain,
Unless distinguish'd in the moral train,
Celebrity she holds as disrepute,
And scorns all laurel from a shameful root!
Licentious follies rarely intervene,
And truth, and sense, and honour claim the scene!
When Love's distress shall in our story rise,
Let sighs break forth—for those are Nature's *sighs*.
When persecuted Worth in grief appears,
Be proud to weep—for those are Virtue's *tears*.
But to our author: each Dramatic Bard
Solicits, but in vain, a long regard;
Form'd to attract the Fashion of the Day,
They, like that fashion, swiftly pass away.
They gain, at most, employ'd in such a cause,
Uncertain honour, fugitive applause!
Now hopes, now fears his anxious heart compose,
Half sunk by these, and just upheld by those;
For in our days, when Envy smiles to sting,
Grief follows joy, and praises censure bring.
Then Wits and Heroes, and the Critic few,
Here let me pass, and, Ladies, plead to *you*;
You, for whose favour ev'ry wit is bright,
All critics comment, and all heroes fight!
Protection from the fair at once conveys
Ample renown, consolidated praise;
For Truth acknowledges, in Nature's name,
The *smiles* of Beauty are the *wreaths* of Fame!
Urg'd still by them, by their reward impress'd,
Each noble passion animates the breast;
They form the heart to ev'ry aim refin'd,
Exalt, delight, and dignify mankind!

SONG IN ADRIAN AND ORILLA.

Gaily! gaily! gaily!
To break a lance at Tourney-fight,
On prancing steed each gallant Knight,
By sunbeam red, or moonshine white,
At honor's call would fly!

Gaily! gaily! gaily!
Around the ring, on rising seats,
A crowd of rival beauty meets,
In radiant pomp, to mark the feats
Of love and chivalry!

Cheerly! cheerly! cheerly!
The barriers close—the trumpets sound;
The neighing coursers forward bound,
And toss their manes, and paw the ground,
Impatient of delay.

Cheerly! cheerly! cheerly!
Now Knights to deadly challenge rush,
And lances shiver, bucklers crush,
Thro' batter'd mail red life-drops gush,
O Jove, how fierce the fray!

Hurra! hurra! hurra!
The Pagan falls—he bites the dust:
No more in war or mimic just
To cope with knight of holier trust—
What shouts assail the sky!

Hurra! hurra! hurra!
The victor kneels to claim the prize,
But while he kneels, with love he sighs,
And seeks in beauty's melting eyes
His boon of victory.

DUET IN ADRIAN AND ORILLA.

The queerest of goblins, the quaintest of sprites,
Who in good deeds and mischief alternate delights,
Is he who dwells high on the mountain—
All winter he toils and blows fire in the mine,
But rambles abroad when the weather is fine,
And eats the fat frog o'the fountain.
He milks Cicely's cow long before it is dawn—
While farmers lie snoring, he threshes their corn;
Then down at his length he sprawls flat on the chaff
And greets the scar'd clown with a riotous laugh.
Number Nip! Number Nip!
O! mountainous! mischievous! marvellous!
Nip!

T'other night as poor Roger was crossing the moor,
And sought thro' the darkness his own cottage door,
The fiend met him mantled in vapour—
Now here and now there danc'd the fanciful sprite,
O'er swamps and stale pools, with a wicked blue light,
Which Roger mistook for a taper.
For hours the night-wanderer was fain to pursue,
Still further and further the knavish light drew;
The ground sudden quaked—Presto! vanish'd the fire,
And poor Roger sank up to his ears in the mire!
Number Nip! Number Nip!
O! mountainous! mischievous! marvellous
Nip!

Note—Number Nip is among the popular superstitions of Middle Germany.

DIAMOND CUT DIAMOND.

A Scene at Berlin, of other times.—Frederick the Great walking alone before his Palace.—Enter two Catholic Priests, with officers of the police: a Corporal of the Prussian Guards in their custody.

1st. Priest.

Justice, my Liege! Justice is what we seek.

King.

I'm always ready to dispense it;—speak.

1st. Priest.

This soldier (so degenerate are our times)
Has practised sacrilege—the worst of crimes!
These costly pearls, which did last night surround
Our blessed Virgin's neck, on him were found.

King.

Corporal, is it thou?—Thy love of plunder,
I fear has led thee to some shameful blunder.

Corporal.

My courage has to you, Sire, long been known,
My honour too unblemish'd shall be shewn.
Entering yon' church, I could not but admire,
The Virgin's beauteous face, and rich attire;
And while I gaz'd with pleasure and with awe,
Her eyes upon me turn, surpriz'd, I saw
Her hands then rais'd, from off her bosom drew
That string of pearls, and held them forth to view;
Her lips I saw divide, and thus she spake;
"Soldier! this present for thy merit take,"
And added,—while I sank upon my knee,
"Accept these pearls; they're of no use to me."

King.

Why, as to that, doubtless 'tis true enough:
But sirrah! think'st thou I believe this stuff?
Do'st thou presume I'm void of common sense?
I stand astonish'd at thy impudence!

Corporal.

Your Majesty is learn'd, and wise, and brave;
Yet rashly censures your devoted slave;
Sire, had *your* eyes beheld what I relate,
You must have own'd the Virgin's glory great.
And to these Rev'rend Fathers I appeal,
If such things *cannot be*, as I reveal.

King. (apart.)

A cunning dog!—The joke is not amiss.

(aloud.)

Well then, my sentence, Holy Priests, is this;
You shall decide his fate:—if stone can move,
And see, and speak,—his conduct I approve;
But, if you say, that all such tales are lies,
He shall be punish'd, and restore the prize.

1st. Priest.

That such things *cannot be*, we've no pretence;
But, Sire! I question much his evidence.
So please your Majesty, I crave permission,
To ask my brother here, for his decision.

(Having withdrawn with the other Priest.)
Brother! what think you of this slipp'ry trick?
I wish the rascal fairly with old Nic.

2d. Priest.
Brother! you make me tremble!—Can you doubt
The Virgin's power to speak, or move about?
A miracle's perform'd—a splendid act;
A heretic converted swears the fact.

1st. Priest. *(apart.)*
The man's a downright fool! or else—let's see,
Perhaps a craftier hypocrite than me.
At all events, best take him at his word.
If this odd tale is deem'd not *too* absurd,
'Twill prove worth twenty necklaces to us:
At least 'tis safe to make no further fuss.
(aloud.)
What you remark, dear Brother, has gre at force;
The Soldier will our convert be, of course;
And when he venerates our holy faith,
Who can disprove the truth of what he saith?
(Having returned to the Company.)
An't please your Majesty, we have agreed,
Your Soldier's statement tallies with our creed;
And if henceforth, the Virgin he'll adore,
We'll charge him with defrauding her no more.

King.
That you may settle at some other time;
As what he now has done is not a crime,
I shall at once dismiss him: no condition
Shall be attach'd to his complete remission.
—Corporal! you're free; no law condemns what's past;
But, hear me, Sir; to make the future fast,
If presents you accept from *stone* or *wood*,
Your *skin* and *flesh*, my lad, shall make them good.

S. G.

LINES WRITTEN IN A THUNDERSTORM. BY G. DAVIES.

The gath'ring tempest now with horror teems,
Thro' the dread gloom the vivid lightning gleams:
Peal follows peal!—still nearer—and more near—
Contending clouds convey th' electric war.
Griev'd at the tempest (that, to ruin sweeps
Her bounteous produce) gen'rous Nature weeps;
And as the elemental warfare ends,
In whelming floods the pond'rous rain descends.

EPITAPH IN CUDDESDOWN CHURCH, OXON, BY THE LATE BISHOP LOWTH; ON A BEAUTIFUL DAUGHTER WHO DIED SUDDENLY.

Cara, vale, ingenio præstans, pietate, pudore,
Et plusquam natæ nomine, cara, vale!
Cara Maria, vale: at veniet felicius ævum,
Quando iterum tecum, simmodo dignus ero.
Cara redi "læta tum dicam voci, paternos
"Eja age in amplexus, cara Maria, redi."

OBSERVANDA EXTERNA.

AMERICA.

Remedy against the Bite of a mad Dog.

It is said that *red pimpernel*, by the botanists named *anagallis arvensis*, has lately been found in America to be a certain remedy for the bite of a mad dog, even after the dreadful symptoms of hydrophobia had taken place. It should be gathered when ripe, and dried in the shade. Then it must be reduced to a powder, of which a table spoonful may be given to an adult, in any convenient vehicle, such as water, beer, honey, or molasses, taking care the weight of the dose does not exceed *one drachm* and *one scruple*. The same quantity, divided into three equal parts, may be administered to a child in the course of a day.

This plant is common both in England and Ireland, as well as on the continent: and is generally called *red chick-weed*, or *redshank*, by country people. Linnets and other small birds are very fond of its seeds.

AUSTRIA.

Astronomical Instruments.—Mines.

The Emperor has granted to the observatory at Ofen, in Hungary, the sum of 7000 florins for the purchase of astronomical instruments. He has also given permission to the following gentlemen to visit the mines in the Hereditary States: to Mr. Chenevix, English chemist; to Don Gimbernat, Director of the royal cabinet at Madrid; to Mr. Beker, inspector of the mines at Altenberg; and to Mr. Grellman, merchant, of Vienna.

BOHEMIA.

Prize Questions.

The Royal Academy of Prague has proposed the following questions: "What are the defects from birth, or contracted afterwards, which, according to anatomical, physiological, and mechanical principles, render saddle, draught, and pack-horses absolutely unfit for military service? and what are the defects that exclude them from that service?"

The prize fifty ducats in gold, and twenty to the *accessit*.

The second question is principally addressed to cavalry officers, who have reflected on the subject: "What may we conclude for or against the use of stallions, and particularly for or against mares, in regard to the military service? And in tactics, supposing an equality of force and qualities, should we give the preference to tall or middle sized horses for cavalry?"

The prize twenty ducats, and ten to the *accessit*. The treatises may be written in German, French, English, Italian, Spanish, or Latin.

CHINA.

Drought, April 1806.

By accounts from China, we are informed that the drought had been so great, for more than three months past, as to occasion an unusual scarcity and dearness of every article of consumption and trade at Canton.

Dr. Buchanan's Journey to Cochin.

Lately the Rev. Dr. Claudius Buchanan, Vice Provost of the College of Fort William, proceeded on his intended journey to Cochin and Travencore, for the purpose of investigating the ancient writings and history of the Jews and Syrian Christians in those places. We understand that J. C. Leyden, M. D. who has been lately employed by the Government of Fort St. George, and who is making literary researches in the Mysore, will accompany Dr. Buchanan.

American Trade at Canton.

There were fifty sail of American ships in China last year, who took from thence to America from eight to ten thousand tons of tea, a great part of which finds its way to Europe. The Eugenia was freighted to America with near 800 tons of teas, at the rate of 100 Spanish dollars per ton. Canton is full of American adventurers, many of whom retire with large fortunes in a few years: there are at least a dozen who have been resident for a year or two, and have already realized something handsome.

DENMARK.

Tour through Greenland.

Counsellor Gieseke, of Copenhagen, has obtained permission from the King to make a tour through Greenland, for the purposes of geography and mineralogy.

EAST INDIES.

Officers' Widows Fund at Calcutta.

The managers of the Bengal Military Widows' Fund have much satisfaction in announcing to the army the prosperous state of the institution. And to enable all who may be interested in its success to form a just opinion on the subject, they have deemed it expedient to publish the following minute, drawn up by one of the committee:—

In an institution of so great importance as that for the relief of officers' widows, it is particularly necessary that they who have the immediate management of the funds should be guarded against every erroneous foundation of confidence in their resources, lest they should be induced to extend the operation of the fund beyond those limits which are necessary to secure the permanency of the institution. If this institution were to raise expectations which, though they may be realized for fifteen or twenty years, would eventually be disappointed by bankruptcy, it is obvious, not only that its entire end and purport would be defeated, but also that numbers of claimants would be exposed to distress, at the moment they thought themselves secure of support from the society. In order, therefore, to prevent injustice and disappointment to future claimants, it will be proper to state the true criterion, by which the prosperity of this institution may be estimated,—the grounds on which it may be expected to answer the purpose for which it has been happily established. It may, perhaps, be thought, on a superficial view of the subject, that the increase of capital must be a sure proof of the prosperous state of the funds; but this is a fallacious test, for while the capital accumulates the number of claimants also increases; nor will this number come to a *maximum* till the expiration of sixty years.

The true criterion of the prosperity of the institution is the annual income, exclusive of the interest of capital.

In order to ascertain the income necessary for giving the widows on the Society's list a certain pension annually, the following rules have been deduced from Dr. Price's celebrated work on Reversionary Payments:—

1st. Determine the purchase of a widow's life at the time of her husband's death.

2dly. Find the number of widows that will annually come upon the Society's list.

3dly. Multiply the two numbers so found by each other, and the product by the intended pension, and the number resulting will be the income required.

1st. Dr. Price calculates the purchase of a widow's life, at the time of her husband's death, *in such a society as this*, to be 12¼ years, interest being reckoned at 4 per cent. Therefore, if interest be reckoned at 8 per cent. the purchase of a widow's life will be 6: 37 years; for the present value of an annuity for 12--5 years, at 4 per cent. is equal to the present value of the same annuity for 6: 37 years at 8 per cent.

2dly. Say 665: 19. 8:: 195 (the number of members) to a fourth, and this shall be the number of widows that will annually come upon the list, viz. 5—8.

3dly. Suppose the intended pension to be 1600 rupees, then 58,113 (=6. 37+5. 8 +1600) will be the income necessary to give stability to the Society, *exclusive* of the interest or accumulating capital; but, as in the present instance, through the liberality of the late revered Marquis Cornwallis, the Hon. the Governor General, the Right Hon. Lord Lake, and a number of other friends, both civil and military, the institution commenced with a capital of 1,20,000 rupees, the interest of this sum will reduce the income necessary to give stability to the institution from 58,113 rupees to 48,513 rupees.

To provide for this income, there will be

	Rupees.
The annual subscriptions of 195 members	26,724
The annual subscription of 410 unmarried officers	20,892
Total	47,616
Add to this sum the donations of 11—4 new members, at 400	4,560
Total	52,176

It may be satisfactory to see how the present fund has been formed.

There has been subscribed as follows:

	Rupees.
By 65 patrons	22,650
195 married officers' donations	74,300
Ditto six months subscriptions	13,362
410 unmarried officers' six months ditto	10,446
Total	1,20,758

N. B. A considerable part of this sum has not, from various unavoidable circumstances, been yet received; there cannot be, however, the smallest doubt but that it will be all very soon realized.

WM. HARVEY, Sec. to the Managers.

Calcutta Circulation,—and Establishment of the New Bank.—April, 1806.

Every one must have noticed with satisfaction the favourable change which has lately taken place in the course of circulation, by which the currency of paper and specie are nearly equalized, and there is reason to hope, from the very great attention paid to this, that, 'ere long, they will be at par.

The circulation also of this great settlement will be supported by the establishment of the new bank, about to be opened under the guarantee of Government. We understand that the whole of the shares (in number 500) have already been subscribed, although the subscription was to continue open till the 15th of the month. The capital of the bank is 50 lacks of sicca rupees, divided into 500 shares of 10,000 rupees each. From the rapidity with which the subscriptions have been filled, we may conclude that a much greater sum would have been subscribed, if required, and we have already heard the regrets of those who deferred their intentions too long. The utility of this establishment is above our praise, as it must gradually supersede shroffage, or the premium which specie bears to paper currency.

It is much to be wished, that a clear and comprehensive dissertation on the circulation of Hindostan, which absorbs so great a part of the precious metals, with the interest and influence which the Shroffs have in it, was before the public; as it would indicate the certain means of rendering it independent of any undue influence or monopoly. Nor is the question, we apprehend, very difficult of elucidation by the application of those rules which regulate the circulation of Great Britain and Holland, for by attending to these, we may readily discern where the analogies, and where the anomalies exist

Although the plan of this institution was circulated only in the course of last month, and the first instalment on the shares will not be payable before the first *proximo*, we understand shares already bear a premium of two or three per cent. We shall not be surprised if the premium rises, as many are anxious to hold shares, and as there can be little doubt of the dividends being considerable.

Of all countries, Hindostan possesses the greatest resources for banking, from the immense sums which must be in the country. A peculiar cast, who devote themselves to the business of exchange and remittances, possess millions; and it is owing to their influence, co-operating with immemorial custom that the interest of money is so high throughout Hindostan. The influence of a different policy has effected a partial reduction of the per centage in the British possessions; but the immense capital of the Shroffs pervades the circulation, and influences it occasionally.

Portuguese Inspector of Settlements.

The Governor General at Goa has the authority of nominating, triennially, the governors to the subordinate Portuguese settlements in India, viz. Demaun and Diu, as well as Macao and Timor; previous to the expiration of their respective governments, a judge is sent to investigate and inquire how they have conducted themselves, in the various trusts reposed in them; he is to listen, and attend to any complaints that may be made against them, also to inquire into the conduct of the Recorder, Custom-house Master, Pay-Master, &c. &c. and report the whole to the Governor General. This judge is denominated *Sendicante*.

Ship launched at Bombay, Tuesday 27 May.

On Monday se'nnight was launched from the yard of Messrs. John Gilmore and Co. a noble ship, of nearly 1200 tons admeasurement; she was named the Fort William, and afforded a grand spectacle to a numerous assemblage of persons, who attended to witness the interesting scene.

We understand this ship is destined for the China trade, in the service of the Hon. Company, agreeably to proposals published by the Court of Directors, for engaging India-built ships of sufficient dimensions for the regular China trade, in consequence, it is under-

stood, of restrictions which Government has laid on building any more large China ships in England whose scantling of timber is equal to that of line of battle ships, from an apprehended scarcity of such timber for the public service.

FRANCE.

Mode of making artificial stones at Dunkirk.

This manipulation is very ingenious, and the stones are used for the foundations and angles of buildings; they are quadrangular, and in the shape of a parallelogram.

The materials used, are the ruins of the citadel; which are a mixture of brick, lime, and sand.

This is broken by means of a mill composed of two stone wheels, one before the other, drawn by a single horse. Water is added to it: the matter retains a reddish colour; and is placed in a trough, where it is kept moist by pouring water over it.

The trough being filled, calcined lime, which is left to be extinguished in the open air, is mixed with about one eighth of cement.

A mould made of boards is prepared, in which, after having laid a thin bed of sand, to prevent the cement's sticking to the mould, they throw in a bed of cement and one of brick bats: then, successively, two other beds, of brick bats and cement, the last must be of cement only; then the mould is taken off, and the stones ranged in a heap to dry. The lime being very absorbent, soon makes the whole a solid body. These stones are not long before they are dried hard, and fit for use.

It is thought there exists a similar manufactory in Prussian Poland, where they are more successful in making good stones, of the ruins of basalt, which combines better with lime and alumine.

The pebbles around Boulogne would be still preferable, and there is no doubt but of them, artificial stones, equal in quality to natural stones, could be made.

Analysis of Human Hair.

M. Vauquelin, the celebrated French chemist, has published the result of some interesting experiments which he lately made, to ascertain the nature of the animal matter which forms human hair. From these it appears that black hair is formed of nine different substances, viz. animal matter, a white concrete oil, another greenish grey one, which is very abundant, iron, some particles of oxyde of manganese, a phosphate of lime, carbonate of lime, silex, and a considerable quantity of sulphur. Red hair contains a red oil in place of a greenish black kind; and white, or very light hair, differs from all the others, as the oil is nearly colourless, and it contains some phosphate of magnesia, which is not found in others.

Prize Question.

The Free Society of Physical and Medicinal Science at Liege have, in their last assembly, on the 12th June 1806, offered a prize of 200 livres on the question "What influence have the passions in producing diseases?" The answers must be sent in before the 1st of April 1807.

The Château of Compiegne,

After having been for some time empty, was converted into a national school. This château, built by Louis XI. and Francis I. and decorated by Louis XIV. and XV. is situated on the river Oise, in a forest containing 29,600 acres. The kings of the last dynasty used to retire there every year to enjoy the pleasures of the chace. It is to be restored to the royal domains, and arrangements are making for the reception of the court.

Phænomenon of Prematurity.

A child, three years and eight months old, son of a poor vine-dresser, was lately presented to the Medical School, as an extraordinary phænomenon. He bears all the marks of puberty, and his cheeks and chin are covered with hair. He easily lifts a weight of 30lbs, eats one or two pounds of meat, bread in proportion, and drinks three bottles of wine. We know of many examples of animal powers equally precocious, but there are none of children, arrived so soon at a state of virility, in whom nature was not nearly exhausted at the same time. The present subject would be a still more curious phænomenon, if he was an exception.—[*Mercure de France for August.*]

GERMANY.

Professor Adelung's new Work.

Professor Adelung, well known by his works on the German language, has been engaged some years in a work on Languages in general, to form three volumes in octavo. It will appear under the title of "Mithridates, or a General Knowledge of Languages." The words are divided into monosyllables and polysylables. The first, which contains the Asiatic languages, has been published at Berlin.

SETTLEMENTS AT NEW HOLLAND.

Removal from Norfolk Island.

Extract of a letter dated Ship Sidney, Sidney Cove, June 8, 1805.—"I wrote to you on leaving the pilot in Ballasore Roads, of my intended voyage to Van Dieman's land, with a cargo of cattle, &c. and have now the pleasure of informing you, that after a passage of two months and nine days, I reached in safety Port Dalrymple, the place of my destination, where I had the satisfaction of landing, all in high health, 622 cows, two horses, and 54 ewes.

"I am at present at Sidney, on the point of sailing for Norfolk Island, for the purpose of removing that settlement to Port Dalrymple, after which I am destined for the river

Derwent, in order to take on board a cargo of oil and skins for London.

This is not a quarter of the world, from which you are to expect much news.—His Majesty's ship Investigator, Capt. Kent, left this, on the 26th May, with some dispatches concerning Capt. Campbell, of the Brig Harrington, belonging to a house in Madras. The Harrington had been on the coast of Peru, and captured two Spanish merchant vessels and a schooner, belonging to the King of Spain; and as a ship is arrived here in six months from Europe, bringing an account, that there was no war with Spain, but only expected, the Governor has thought proper to detain the Harrington, Capt. Campbell, and his officers, until further accounts from Europe. — The two prizes are fitting out for the purpose of being restored.

POLAND.

Polish and Sclavonian Dictionary.

Mr. Linde, Director of the Lyceum at Warsaw, is engaged on a Polish and Sclavonian Dictionary. Many of the first nobility have contributed greatly towards defraying the expenses of printing it. Prince Adam Czartorinski has subscribed 4000 rxd.: Count Zamoiski 2000: Count Ossolinski 500: the Countess of Wurczel 500, &c. &c.

RUSSIA.

Colonies on the Black Sea.

Letter from Odessa, July 12, 1806. "The newly established colonies in the southern Russian provinces, lying on the Black Sea, flourish exceedingly, the inhabitants have all good houses, conveniently furnished, and are likely to reap an abundant harvest from their newly cultivated fields. Except a few ill-disposed individuals, incapable of gratitude, all feel and esteem themselves happy, and grateful to a beneficent government, which has treated them with so much goodness and care. Such measures have been adopted to furnish the dwellings completely with necessaries, that more than 250 families could now find their support in these countries. About 60 families are already arrived from different countries, partly provided with carriages and horses. They have found a welcome reception. There remains room and conveniencies for near 200 more, who in like manner, with those who have preceded them, may be assured that with industry and good exertions, they cannot fail of procuring an easy, and comfortable subsistence. The worthy Governor General, the Duke of Richelieu, who lately returned from a journey to his government, is unceasingly attentive, with as much prudence as philanthropy, to establish and increase the welfare of these colonies. The cultivation of Silk increases by degrees in the southern provinces of the empire. On an estate belonging to Mr. von Engel, actual counsellor, and secretary of state, to the Emperor of Russia, in the neighbourhood of Odessa, where he planted a quantity of mulberry trees about 4 years ago, 60 pounds of silk have this year been produced."

The late events on the continent are likely, if the Russians exert but the smallest skill in beating up for recruits, to induce a great number of individuals to try their fortunes in these new countries. We conclude, therefore, that they will probably soon be much increased in inhabitants.

Professor Forster, Mineralogist.

Science has lost a very able advocate in the death of Mr. Jacob Forster, professor of mineralogy, who died May last at Petersburgh at the age of 67; he had been resident there the last 10 years: he collected several considerable cabinets of ores, and enriched among others that of the King of Spain. About 3 years ago, he sold his own valuable collection of ores to the Emperor of Russia for 50,000 roubles, for the use of the corps of Mine Cadets.

SPAIN.

Antiquities.

The academy of fine arts have just published a complete collection of the antiquities of Grenada and Cordova.

Christmas Custom at the Court of Spain.

About twenty years ago a rather whimsical custom was introduced at the Court of Spain, on Christmas day; which is the *Nasimiento*, or nativity. In the interior of the palace there is a very spacious wainscoted room; every year during several months hands are employed in preparing a kind of landscape in this large room. Thousands of wooden figures one foot high are represented, all remarkably well finished, and dressed according to the different costumes of the country; habitations are seen, Roman and other edifices well executed, rivers, fleets: in short a whole country whose horizon seems to meet the skies. The object of the inhabitants is to rejoice at the nativity of Christ. The three Kings are seen with a numerous suite, coming to visit J. C. and offer magnificent presents. Thousands of wax tapers, artificially concealed, diffuse a moderate yet bright light. Nothing can convey a true idea of the *Nasimiento*, which is quite an extraordinary thing. It is to be seen for about a fortnight; the King invites whomsoever he likes.

The *Nasimiento* is said to cost annually twenty-five or thirty thousand pounds.

SWEDEN.

Royal Corps of Geometricians.

The king has ordered the formation of a royal corps of Geometricians for the purpose of projecting plans and military charts, for arranging the descriptions, and collecting all the documents and papers relating to the military operations of the Swedish army.

OBSERVANDA INTERNA.

Commerce.—The spirit of commercial enterprise in this country, and the opinion entertained of the importance of our recent conquests in South America, are strongly manifested by the fact of 72 vessels of upwards of 44,000 tons burthen, having already sailed for Buenos Ayres. About half the vessels are from London.

Reports under the Manifest Act.—We understand that the commissioners of the customs have signified their determination to enforce very strictly a due observance of the *Manifest Act*, and have directed their officers particularly to require, that "masts and "every other description of wood, be regu-"larly *reported* under their proper denomi-"nations." As the raff trade forms so very considerable a part of the imports, we insert this notice by way of caution to the captains of merchant ships in general.

Royal Academy.—After a variety of counter cabals and intrigues, which have disgraced this academy for a considerable time past, Mr. West is at last restored to the presidency of this society.

BERKS.

Yellow Oker.—A very valuable stratum of yellow oker has been lately discovered in a field belonging to Mr. G. Frankum at Woolhampton, which is likely to prove of infinite advantage to the owner; it appears to be more pure than any hitherto tried.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE.

Oil from Sun-Flower Seeds.—A gentleman in the Fens of Cambridgeshire, had lately growing fifteen acres of sun-flowers, the stems of which are amazingly tall and thick, and the heads very large. They promise much seed, which many persons engaged in oil-mills expect will produce oil, equal in quality to what is called Gallipoli oil.

DURHAM.

Sunday Schools.—It appears from the Annual Report published on the 1st Dec. that 272 poor children are educated in the Sunday schools of the city of Durham, under the care of eight teachers and their assistants. The schools owe much of their present prosperity to the benevolent attention of the ladies of Durham, whose visits have produced the most beneficial effects in the improvement of the scholars. The committee have unanimously determined "to reward the most diligent at Easter, with such gratuities as shall be thought proper, at a meeting to be held for that purpose."

GLOUCESTERSHIRE.

Gloucester Cathedral.—Great improvements have been made in this beautiful cathedral, by the removal of the former most inconsistent Corinthian altar-piece; and the erection of one of a Gothic design, in unison with the remaining building. By this alteration, so long the wish of every man of taste, we are afforded a fascinating view of the interior of the chapel of our lady. The very liberal conduct of the Dean and Chapter on this occasion, must be a subject of general approbation.

LANCASHIRE.

Sight suddenly regained.—It is no less remarkable than true, that Joshua Albinson, a resident of Denton near Manchester, who had been quite blind for the last twelve years had, a short time ago suddenly and unexpectedly, his ocular faculty restored to him, without any means whatever having been used for the purpose, and the old man is now in good health and spirits, thankfully enjoying the blessing which kind providence has thus bestowed on him.

LIVERPOOL.

Prodigious Fossil Bones from America.—A gentleman who has just returned from a mineralogical tour of several years in America, has brought from New Orleans such objects of natural history collected during his researches, as will astonish the naturalists of this country. Among others is the remains of an animal of the lion or tyger kind, of such stupendous magnitude, as almost to exceed the bounds of credibility; being on a moderate calculation fifty feet long. A single carnivorous grinder weighs ten pounds, one foot covers a space of four feet by three, and the tail must have been three feet in circumference. It is clear from the structure of the bones, that the animal must have been very fleet, and capable of making immense bounds or leaps,

What could have resisted the impetuosity of such a creature with such power and inclination for destruction. A universal carnage must have followed wherever he moved. The whole of the collection has been purchased for the Museum, the proprietor of which has published the interesting manuscripts of the gentleman who discovered and brought them to this country.

RADNORSHIRE.

Singular Discovery.—On Wednesday evening the 3d of December, was found in a field at a farm house belonging to Mr. Roberts, of Pyennor, near Knighton, Radnorshire, several hundred pieces of gold coin, supposed to have lain there many centuries if not a thousand years; they were deposited in pipkins, and are now in a perfect state, about the size of a half crown and of the value of eighteen shillings or thereabouts.

SOMERSETSHIRE.

Colston's commemoration at Bristol.—The

grateful testimonies of regard which the citizens of Bristol annually pay to the memory of the late eminent and charitable Edward Colston, Esq., are as honourable to themselves, as they are respectful to that exalted character; and time seems not in the least to abate their veneration for him. On Thursday, Nov. 20th, the anniversary of his birthday, the bells of the different parishes, were rung throughout the day, and the societies instituted for the commemoration of it, and for imitating his exemplary munificence, met as usual, and liberally contributed towards the relief of their necessitous fellow-creatures, by raising among them £694 for that benevolent purpose.

WARWICKSHIRE.

Birmingham Dispensary.—We have to congratulate the friends of this institution on the progress of the subscription for erecting a new building for the use of the charity. Several large sums have been received lately and the gentlemen who have kindly undertaken to solicit subscriptions give a favorable report of their proceedings. Mr. Holcroft is executing a plan of the new dispensary.

YORKSHIRE.

Water in Sheep.—It has been often remarked how little the disorders incident to sheep, are ever known in sheep countries. The common shepherds keep pace with the common farriers, and only observe that the animals have always died, and they cannot help it. A farmer near Kilham in Yorkshire, turned his flock of sheep into a field of turnips he had hired, which were remarkably strong and good. In a short time he lost 20 of them by the disorder called the water. He grew so alarmed, that he removed his sheep, and would not permit them to eat any more turnips. On this, the owner of the land remonstrated and insisted on the turnips being eaten on the ground. After some little time and altercation, the farmer brought back his flock, and six more of them died. On this he took his final leave of the turnips and said "they killed sheep, and he would have nothing more to do with them."

The owner of the land had them publickly cried, but the turnips had got so bad a name, that with no little difficulty they were let at half price.

The next farmer sent in his sheep, and in a short time lost about eight or ten. On this second disaster the reputation of the turnips was gone entirely, and a farmer had the offer of them for nothing, provided he would eat them up, to which he agreed.

He sent there 630 sheep, so that the experiment was a very full and fair one. The method he pursued he heard of in Northumberland; As soon as the sheep had filled themselves with the turnips, he made his shepherd go among them and move them about. They voided in consequence a good deal of water. He did this for some days, at stated intervals, and sometimes made his shepherd go among them in the middle of the night. By this method they were never suffered to lie long, and swell with what they had eaten. The consequence of this proceeding was, that after eating up the whole of these faulty turnips, he removed his 630 sheep, all in good condition; without the loss of a single sheep.

Two circumstances may be deduced from the above experiments: the complaint of the water which so frequently kills sheep when put out to turnips, arises from their gorging themselves with this watery food, and then continuing without exercise to carry off the beginning of the complaint; the second, that this method may tend to prevent the disorder, at the small expense of a little trouble to the shepherd. Should this method prove on trial, as successful as the experiment gives hope, the farmer will have many reasons to thank the man who tried it, and the public will be obliged by the communication.

WALES.

New species of Cotton.—A manufactory of a new species of cotton, the invention of an Irish gentleman is about to be established in the neighbourhood of Llanelly.

IRELAND.

Bedford Asylum.—November 28, his Grace the Duke of Bedford visited the house of industry in Dublin, and laid the first stone of a building for the reception of 1000 poor children of every religious denomination. His Grace was pleased to permit it to be called the Bedford Asylum. We are gratified in reflecting, that by the increase of these establishments for the education of youth, in honest, active industry, and by the extirpation of religious prejudices, those distinctions which have been hitherto a wall of separation, dividing man from man, will in time be done away and give place to a more enlightened policy, and more enlarged benevolence, under the protecting patronage of our revered viceroy.

Irish language in Down.—Mr. Harris in his History of the County of Down, says "the Irish tongue is in a manner banished from among the common people, and what little of it is spoken, can be heard only among the inferior ranks of Catholics; and even that little diminishes every day, by the great desire the poor natives have, that their children should be taught to read and write the English tongue, in the charter or other protestant schools, to which they willingly send them." Compare Mr. Carr's opinion, Panorama, p. 698.

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Lord Valentia's Return from his Scientific Voyage to India, the Red Sea, &c. and Mr. Salt from Abyssinia.

Lord Viscount Valentia has recently arrived in London on his return from India, by the way of Suez, with his secretary Mr. Salt, after nearly five years absence from England in various parts of India.

His Lordship made some months stay on the coast of the Red Sea, and parts adjacent, and has made some valuable charts of those different places. His Lordship had by order of the government of India the Panther, Company's cruiser, captain Court, to assist him. Mr. Salt made an excursion into Abyssinia with Major Arundel of the Honourable Company's service, as far as the capital, Gondar. Lord Valentia's state of health at that period, would not permit him to accompany Mr. Salt. The Public will be gratified by much valuable information collected by his lordship during this long, laborious, and laudable research. A young Abyssinian prince is in his lordship's suite, who is a near relation of Negade Ras Mahomet, one of the principal officers of state, so often mentioned by Mr. Bruce in his travels, as being his friend. This young prince appears to be possessed of great natural endowments, and is anxious to become acquainted with the manners and customs of Great Britain.

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Calorifere, Properties of a Good Stove.

Many attempts have been made, with alternate success and disappointment, to improve the means of varying the temperature of the atmosphere in our houses; and it is well known, that the rousing English fire is the common topic of ridicule and contempt among our northern neighbours, who prefer the stove to the broad chimney, and glowing combustibles, so indicative of British hospitality. It must be confessed that our partial adherence to ancient custom, in preference to modern ingenuity, is not always justifiable. The Swedes were the first who discovered (in 1766) the method of animating the flame by concealed tubes, which gave also the additional advantage of conveying away the noxious vapour with which all materials for domestic burning are impregnated. But whatever may be the objections to which that contrivance is liable, they have been all obviated by the discovery of a person of the name of Oliver, whose invention has been laid before the national institute of Paris by Mr. Guyton.

This Calorifere (such is the name it has received) possesses the following recommendations:—

1st. The tube of the chimney is reducible to so small a size, that the escape of the smoke into the apartment is impossible.

2d. The apparatus burns the combustibles introduced into it without waste, to an impalpable powder, or perfect ash.

3d. It emits all the heat into the room, without suffering any portion of it uselessly to escape.

4th. The heat is capable of being regulated to any degree of the thermometer required.

5th. A very small quantity of wood is sufficient to warm a large apartment for 12 hours.

6th. The fire is always visible to every person in the room.

7th. The chimney is capable of receiving all the embellishments which wealth can supply, or art contrive.

We have been so often disappointed by French professions, that we have no extraordinary confidence in the present discovery. Nevertheless, we insert the article, because we think it descriptive of what a good stove should be.

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Polyantography. Impressions from stone.

Among the patents lately obtained is one for a very important art called Polyantography, or the art of taking impressions from drawings made on a stone, without any engraving. It appears from the specification, that the drawings may be made with a pen and a particular kind of ink, and with chalk prepared for the purpose, with the same facility and freedom as on paper. By a simple chemical process the drawing is rendered capable of yielding a greater number of impressions than any copper-plate; and these impressions must necessarily be fac-similes of the original drawings. A specimen of the engravings has appeared; and several artists in London are employed in continuing the work.

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Artemisia Absinthium used as Hops.

In some parts of the kingdom, where the *artemisia absinthium* grows in abundance, it is used instead of hops, having the peculiar quality of destroying acescency in beer grown hard for want of them.—The leaves of the same plant, steeped in boiling water and repeatedly applied to a recent bruize, removes the pain, and prevents the discolouration of the part.

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Effects of Sea Salt as Manure.

Mr. Arthur Young, the father of the agricultural science in England, after many experiments and observations on the subject, affirms, that sea-salt acts as a very powerful manure, especially when added to dung. He says also, that very considerable benefit has been found from the application of sea-water to vegetables; and that when mixed with dung, or compost dunghills, it possesses a septic power that promotes putrefaction.

POLITICAL PERISCOPE.

MANY and dissimilar are the emotions of mind, which occupy a calm and dispassionate temper, when reflecting on the state of public affairs, as they concern our own country, or the world, at large. We see on one hand our enemy prospered in his undertakings hitherto, after a manner entirely unprecedented: yet we see ourselves, the chief object of his rancour, no less wonderfully preserved from the consequences of his fury. We see powers, formerly thought of the first magnitude, and whose very "note of preparation," was dreaded by their neighbours, annihilated, as it were, in a moment; yet Britain after a long period of combat, becomes rather inured to war, and this island, to which her opponents with reluctance ascribe the dignity of a power of the second rank, maintains the conflict against that colossal augmentation of strength, which subjugates Europe. We see the comforts of life, snatched from the lips of many thousands of subjects to states not long since independent and powerful; yet no sense of want has prevailed in this country, though long acknowleded to be unable to supply her own necessities. We see our enemy panting after the acquisition of SHIPS, COLONIES, and COMMERCE, led by every acquisition further off from obtaining them, directing all his efforts to quarters where those objects are not to be procured; while Britain is almost glutted with distant possessions, and her very acquisitions are beheld with sentiments not absolutely the offspring of complacency. If we consider the different employments of the population, appertaining to the contending powers, one is drawn off for military services, to contract habits of life utterly unprofitable to the nation, in future years, even if permitted to return in safety home: the other is either following its customary occupation on land, or, employed in marine adventures, is acquiring that knowledge which will render the individual useful, and be the means of his maintenance after his immediate engagements are expired. What will Buonaparté do with his soldiers after he has accomplished his purposes by their means? Disband them. Will their military knowledge become their future support? No. They will be the worse husbandmen, artisans, artists, mechanics; they have every atom of such professions to learn, and not a single rudiment of either, can have been taught them. Will the sailors of Britain be at a loss for employment when peace permits them to be discharged from their ships? No: they will only change their employers, and after a short interval, will navigate merchant vessels, instead of men of war. They will still man our ships, still trade to our colonies, still convey our commerce; and thus the essential strength of this nation, its population, will be preserved to it, unbroken, and almost undiminished, till the course of nature removes our gallant seamen, as it removes all mankind, to the land of perpetual repose.

But, without presuming to anticipate the termination of the contest, our attention is sufficiently attracted by the occurrences of the moment. If we divide these into foreign, and domestic, we shall find in either division sufficient matter for serious reflection.

Buonaparté tells the world, that he has annihilated the power of Prussia: there is no relying on French representations; but, supposing it to be so, how far does the fact affect Great Britain? In a political view; not far. Because, 1. Prussia, from its situation, never was a power on which we placed a *principal* reliance. 2. It has of late years been a power on which we placed *no* reliance. 3. It was at the time of commencing its war with France, in a state of enmity against us: of course *reliance* of any kind for services *was out of the question.* If we had not influence enough on her councils to preserve her amity; if we harboured well founded distrust rather than confidence; if her promises, her conventions, her treaties, her engagements, could not hold her, what injury do we sustain in her loss? However destructive to herself, however calamitous to Europe, her present fate may be, the event was long anticipated by those among us who could combine effects with their causes. What we actually behold, hardly reaches the full extent of what many a mind had confidently expected. There is another consideration distinct, yet connected with this subject. The suddenness of the Prussian overthrow is of the utmost advantage to Britain. It has suffered us to entertain no false hopes; we have not been amused by alternate success and defeat; we have not been induced to send men, or money, to form subsidiary treaties, to linger out our expectations. We are so far, whole and unbroken; our army is not diminished by a single batallion; our treasury is not drained of a single guinea. The enemy follows his course eastward, and even his growls are heard at still further and further distances. The voice of this Providence cannot be mistaken, "Britain look to yourself: depend on yourself: employ your own means: advert to your own experience: exercise your own sagacity: and build no trust on assistance procurable from others. Banish fear, falsehood, and faction. Rouse every energy; improve the interval allotted you; while you hope the best, prepare for the worst: and having long boasted of your freedom, and vaunted of what freemen can do, justify those boasts by your readiness and alacrity; meet events with promptitude, and sustain them with constancy."

The British nation has for ages been exempt from actual suffering: we have no fear but it would meet an enemy with firmness; yet we confess our apprehensions that reverses might put to the test that national endurance which is no less necessary than courage and vigour. We strongly advise our countrymen to demonstrate to the world, that they can support privations, when necessary, equally as firmly as they can meet a charge.

Little need be said on the other nations of the Continent: Russia and Sweden are our allies: the first is mighty, but her might is local, and she *may* have enough to do to defend herself. The latter is willing, but weak. Nature has placed bounds to the exertions of Sweden, which no wise monarch will attempt to overpass. Denmark holds a precarious existence. The Germanic powers are in distress: the honest among them in grief, the traitors, at present triumphant. Austria is half alarmed, half expectant. That the disasters of Prussia yield it any gratification, it would be ungenerous to suppose, but if events might favour the wishes of Austria, could politicians wonder at her taking advantage of those events? Holland and Spain are provinces of France: their colonies are, therefore, exposed to the power of Britain. They are useful lessons of the consequences of admitting French principles and pretensions, in the first instance: for,—had these states uniformly repelled them!——Italy is French; but of no great advantage to France. Turkey is an anomalous government, and vibrates between the alternately prevailing fears of offending Russia and disobliging France. The Sultan weeps over present weaknesses; and reads in the book of fate, events much more desolating and disastrous.

The domestic situation of Britain, calls aloud for thankfulness: HITHERTO UNVANQUISHED is the motto which should be inscribed on the shield of Britannia. We shall not so far flatter our country as to boast of resources unbroken, blows unfelt, injuries of which we are not sensible, and the calamities of war supported without inconvenience. We know, that great difficulties always attend a state of warfare. Our very victories cost us dear; our exertions occupy our strength: our attempts are attended with hazard. It always was so; always will be so. Our principal danger, however, does not arise from our enemies, overtly, but covertly: not directly but indirectly. Our governors may be urged, by the pressure of the moment to a false step: that false step may produce consequences felt when the pressure is forgot. If we disgust our population, that disgust may remain, long after the occasion: if we drain too closely the springs of individual prosperity, will not individuals complain? and with reason, since the sum of individual prosperity is the amount of the prosperity of the nation. Happily, Britain enjoys internal peace. We are not aware of any rankling faction, the numbers of which are considerable; still less are they formidable. If there be any direct communication between our enemy and internal traitors, it is extremely feeble, and confined: that such a thing *may* be, we know, because such things have been: but the mass of the public has little of *that* leaven in it. Difference of opinion on political matters, openly avowed, never is dangerous. When John Bull speaks out, he never intends mischief. He wisely compares his present situation with that of his continental neighbours: he knows that the Victor has adopted as his motto, "Woe to the vanquished:" and he endures, not without anxiety, yet still he endures, with a dignified satisfaction, those evils which he feels conscious that they are much lighter than his adversary would rejoice to inflict.

We should be glad if we could say what our wishes dictate respecting Ireland: that part of our empire is valuable but vulnerable; we doubt whether its *true* value has hitherto been understood. A wise policy is necessary to bring up that country to its level.

Our colonies in North America, suffer as little by the war, as may be supposed. Those in the West Indies, have always been esteemed hazardous: and difficulties attend every step which can be taken with respect to them. To hear some people talk, it might be supposed they were within a hair's breadth of ruin; yet others maintain that they are prosperous. The truth, as usual, lies between these extremes. In all wars they have experienced privations: why not then in the present war? We are convinced that delicate management is requisite on their behalf; but this we trust they will receive.

India we hope will recover from its late distractions: that this part of the globe may enjoy peace, is our sincere desire: should fresh wounds be inflicted before the old are healed, we fear for the constitution and strength of the patient. It is true that embarassment is not desperation; perplexity is very consistent with the most solid grounds of highly favourable results: yet speaking of present facts, we rest our hopes on the continuance of Indian tranquillity, *that* may give time to an enlightened government, to adopt such measures as may place India in an elevation at once honourable and advantageous, both to itself and to the empire at large.

We say nothing on our minor settlements, because the purpose of this article is only to revive in the reader's mind the recollection of those more important interests which are likely to come under discussion in the ensuing session of parliament. A hint is all we can allow for each; but more detailed accounts

of every colony without exception, either have been, or will be, given, in our work. We presume to say, that our numbers will present, as fast as they arrive, more particulars of local information, than have hitherto been presented to the public. The result of the whole is, that the situation of Europe is deplorable: but the *real* condition of the all-grasping tyrant of our day is *very suspicious:* he follows his fortune, not his reason, or his judgment: he is raised up, to punish Europe for its crimes: he is the minister of vengeance: he strikes as commissioned; when the measure of punishment is complete, when those who have transgressed have suffered, each in turn, then shall this tempest be dispersed, the clouds be scattered, and tranquillity resume its dominion among the sons of men.

And this is a cheerful view of the subject: if indeed blind chance governed the affairs of men, or if human violence could effect all its desires, there would then be little to support the hopes of humanity: we should see cruelty perpetuated: ambition radically established, hypocrisy permanently successful; and atheism completely triumphant. But we cheer ourselves in the confidence that providence, who has hitherto averted from this island, by means not within our contemplation, the execution of those threats which have been vented against us, will still be our protector: and, directing the storm to other climes, will turn away its rage from us. Perfectly agreeable to this suggestion is a remark which we wish to submit before we conclude. It appears that Prussia waged war against France, *ex mero motu*, perfectly unsolicited by us: we had not even an agent at her court. Whatever this was to her, it was protection to us: if Bonaparte really was, as he said, ready to invade us, yet felt himself forced to employ his armies elsewhere, without any interference of Britain, what is this, but an interposition of Providence, which it becomes Britain to improve with alacrity and gratitude? We close, by hinting, that those states which have hitherto suffered most severely by late calamities, are those where the most general reception had been given to the principles of Voltaire. They had undoubtedly a tendency to destroy the very foundations of morality, patriotism, and civilized society: whether providence has merely suffered these principles to issue in what is their natural effect, or has directed punishment to follow wherever these principles had preceded, is a question, the discussion of which will not at this time be expected from us.

In the House of Commons Mr. Abbott was re elected Speaker; but, the Parliament was, properly speaking, opened Dec. 19, by the following speech on the part of the crown; it was delivered by commissioners of whom the Lord Chancellor was the speaker. They were the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, Lord Sidmouth, and Lord Holland.

"My Lords and Gentlemen,—His Majesty has commanded us to assure you, that in the difficult and arduous circumstances under which you are now assembled, it is a great satisfaction to him to recur to the firmness and wisdom of his Parliament, after so recent an opportunity of collecting the sense of his people.

"His Majesty has ordersd the papers which have been exchanged in the course of the late negociation with France, to be laid before you. His Majesty has employed every effort for the restoration of general tranquillity, on terms consistent with the interest and honour of his people, and with that inviolable good faith towards his allies, by which the conduct of this country has always been distinguished.

"The ambition and injustice of the enemy disappointed these endeavours, and in the same moment kindled a fresh war in Europe, the progress of which has been attended with the most calamitous events.

"After witnessing the subversion of the ancient constitution of Germany, and the subjugation of a large proportion of its most considerable states; Prussia found herself still more nearly threatened by that danger, which she had vainly hoped to avert by so many sacrifices. She was therefore at length compelled to adopt the resolution of openly resisting this unremitted system of aggrandizement and conquest. But neither this determination, nor the succeeding measures, were previously concerted with His Majesty; nor had any disposition been shewn to offer any adequate satisfaction for those aggressions which had placed the two countries in a state of mutual hostility.

"Yet, in this situation, His Majesty did not hesitate to adopt, without delay, such measures as were best calculated to unite their councils and interests, against the common enemy. The rapid course of the calamities which ensued, opposed insurmountable difficulties to the execution of this purpose.

"In the midst of these disastrous events, and under the most trying circumstances, the good faith of His Majesty's allies has remained unshaken. The conduct of the King of Sweden has been distinguished by the most honourable firmness. Between His Majesty and the Emperor of Russia, the happiest union subsists; it has been cemented by reciprocal proofs of good faith and confidence; and His Majesty doubts not that you will participate in his anxiety to cultivate and confirm an alliance which affords the only remaining hope of safety for the continent of Europe.

"Gentlemen of the House of Commons,—His Majesty looks with confidence to your assistance in those exertions which the honour and independence of your country demand. The necessity of adding to the public burthens will be painful to your feelings, and is deeply distressing to His Majesty. In considering the estimates for the various branches of the public service, you will best consult His Majesty's wishes, by combining all practicable œconomy with those efforts which it is necessary to make against the formidable and increasing power of the enemy.

"My Lords and Gentlemen,—The long series of misfortune which has afflicted the continent of Europe, could not fail to affect, in some degree, many important interests of this country. But, under every successive difficulty, His Majesty has had the satisfaction of witnessing an increasing energy and firmness on the part of his people, whose uniform and determined resistance, has been no less advantageous than honourable to themselves, and has exhibited the most striking example to the surrounding nations. The unconquerable valour and discipline of His Majesty's fleets and armies, continue to be displayed with undiminished lustre. The great sources of our prosperity and strength are unimpaired; nor has the British nation been, at any time, more united in sentiment and action, or more determined to maintain inviolate the independance of the empire, and the dignity of the national character.

"With these advantages, and with a humble reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, His Majesty is prepared to meet the exigencies of this great crisis; assured of receiving the fullest support from the wisdom of your deliberations, and from the tried affection, loyalty, and public spirit of his brave people."

The address was moved in the House of Lords by the Earl of Jersey, and seconded by Lord Somers. It was commented on by Lord Hawkesbury; who was answered by Lord Grenville. The discussion was not very vigorous; and when the Negociation Papers, with other information, is before the House, a more interesting consideration of them may be expected. Address carried without division.

December 22, Lord Grenville moved the thanks of the House to Sir John Stuart, the officers and sodiers whose valour triumphed in the battle of Maida: naming also Generals Cole and Ackland. Agreed *nem. dis.* Adjourned to Dec. 31.

In the House of Commons, Mr. W. Lamb moved the address, and of coure, painted in strong colours the claims of the ministry to the gratitude of their country. Mr. John Smith seconded the motion. Mr. Canning animadverted on the address, as proposed; and took a very extensive view of political affairs: he also read another address by way of amendment, but professing his desire of unanimity, did not press it on the acceptance of the House. Lord Howick, in reply, gave a good deal of information, observing that—Prussia was lost by her own acts—her precipitancy: that she had neither informed Britain, nor even Russia, from whom she expected assistance:—that with regard to the negociation with France, the papers to be produced would prove, that the proposal originated with France; that France had agreed to the general basis of the treaty, but afterwards abandoned the agreement; that no delay was imputable to ministers, they being guided by the incident of D'Oubril, the Russian negociator having signed a treaty; but, the Emperor refusing to ratify it, this delay was terminated: and—that with regard to any exploits performed by the French squadrons, they were little to be dreaded on the part of Britain, though somewhat to boast of, on the part of France. Lord Castlereagh differed from Lord Howick; censured the dissolution of the last Parliament; censured the supineness of ministers in not encouraging Prussia to concert with Britain; censured the recall of Sir D. Baird, and Sir H. Popham, (who having acted without orders, are at present in somewhat of a dilemma: we hope, however, that all will end well; and that unexpected advantages may be derived from their activity). Address carried without a division.

Dec. 21, Mr. Secretary Windham moved thanks of the House to Sir J. Stuart, &c. as mentioned in the House of Lords; his motion was seconded by Sir J. Doyle. Agreed *nem. con.* As we stated in a few words our thoughts on the subject of this brilliant exploit when we recorded it, vide Panorama, p. 184, we shall only add, that the number of the French appears, by returns found on their officers, to have been about 8000, opposed to less than 5000 British. The number of the enemy killed was 1300, prisoners 1800, taken afterwards 2000. The wounded carried off by the enemy, were, no doubt, considerable. The French kept their courage till within about a yard of the British troops; of whom a very few were wounded by the French bayonets.

Dec. 22, No debate, but merely a few words on amending the works at the London Docks; on Mr. Bowyer's petition for a Lottery Bill for his Gallery of Pictures; on the non-return of the Election for Galway. Agreed that a supply be granted to His Majesty.

Dec. 23. Explanation concerning the Galway election. Estimates for the navy, army, and ordnance, laid before the House. Discussion of salary attached to the office of chairman of ways and means. Adjourned to Dec. 29.

SUCCINCT STATEMENT OF THE LATE NEGOCIATION FOR PEACE WITH FRANCE.

[Extracted from "Papers relative to the "Negociation with France, presented by "His Majesty's Command, to both Houses "of Parliament, 22d December, 1806."]

Panorama Office, Dec. 23, 1806.

The importance of the following information to the Public, has induced us to unusual exertions, with intent to communicate an orderly and clear view of the conduct of that pacific Negociation which during the last summer exercised the expectations of the British Nation; and of the world, at large. Having been favoured with a Copy of the Papers relative to the subject, which yesterday were presented, by His Majesty's command, to both Houses of Parliament, we have carefully abstracted these documents. They are, as usual, given both in French and English, in 159 folio pages. As the proportion of English is at least 100 pages, it must be evident that a sketch, though a faithful one, is all which our limits can possibly admit.

It appears from these papers that a proposal to assassinate Bonaparte, was made to Mr. Secretary Fox, by an adventurer, in the course of the month of February, 1806. Of this proposal, Mr. Fox gave speedy notice to M. Talleyrand, Minister in France for Foreign Affairs: expressing at the same time, the aversion of Britain from all such conduct. Bonaparte directed Talleyrand to return Mr. Fox his thanks for this communication. This official note was accompanied by another in which M. T. writes thus:

"*Paris, 5th March*, 1806.—It may be agreeable to you to receive news from this country.—I send you the Emperor's Speech to the Legislative Body. You will therein see that our wishes are still for peace. I do not ask what is the prevailing inclination with you; but if the advantages of peace are duly appreciated, you know upon what basis it may be discussed."

"*Extract from the Speech above referred to, March* 2, 1806.—I desire peace with England. On my part, I shall never delay it for a moment. I shall always be ready to conclude it, taking for its basis the stipulations of the treaty of Amiens."

Mr. Fox replied to this hint, by stating the readiness of Britain to concur in the desirable attempt of terminating hostilities: waving all reference to past misunderstandings, and adopting such bases in this undertaking, as the present situation of affairs demanded. His words are,

"*March* 26.—The true basis of such a negociation between two great powers, equally despising every idea of chicane, would be the reciprocal recognition of the following principle; viz. That the object of both parties should be a peace, honorable for both, and for their respective Allies; and at the same time, of a nature to secure, as far as is in their power, the future tranquillity of Europe. England cannot neglect the interests of any of her Allies; and she is united to Russia by such close connections, that she would not treat, still less conclude upon any thing, but in concert with the Emperor Alexander; but whilst awaiting the actual intervention of a Russian Plenipotentiary, some of the principal points might however be discussed, and even provisionally arranged."

M. Talleyrand's answer considers Mr. Fox as referring to the "mediation," the "intervention" of Russia. He thereupon writes,

"*April* 1.—*The Emperor covets nothing that England possesses.* Peace with France is possible, and may be perpetual, provided there is no interference in her internal affairs, and that no attempt is made to restrain her in the regulation of her custom duties; to cramp her commercial rights; or to offer any insult to her flag." . . . He afterwards adds, "Two enlightened and neighbouring nations would be wanting in the opinion they ought to entertain of their power and wisdom, should they call for the intervention of foreign and distant powers, in the discussions of the great interests which divide them: Thus, Sir, peace may be treated upon and concluded immediately, if your Court really entertains the desire of attaining it.

"Our interests are reconcileable, inasmuch as they are distinct. You are the rulers of the ocean, your naval forces are equal to those of all the sovereigns of the world united. We are a great Continental power; but there are many who equal our power by land, and your maritime preponderance will always place our commerce at the mercy of your squadrons, immediately after your declaring war. Do you think it reasonable to expect that the Emperor should ever consent to submit himself to your discretion, in continental affairs also? If, masters of the sea through your own power, you propose being masters of the land likewise by a combined force, peace is impossible; for in that case you will be striving for an object which you can never attain."

"I conclude, by declaring that his Majesty fully adopts the principle laid down in your dispatch, and offered as the basis of the negociation, "that the peace proposed should "be honourable for the two courts, and for "their respective allies."

Mr. Fox, to repell the idea of Russia being omitted in this negociation, writes explicitly,

"That in whatever relates to peace and war between England and France, Russia can never be considered a *foreign* power, inasmuch as she is in actual alliance with England, and at war with France. For which reason the interposition of the Emperor Alexander was proposed in my letter, not as a mediator but as a party, *April* 8."

The next letter from the French Minister, April 16, is of considerable length, and creditable to his abilities: it shews his perception of things, but he cautiously avoids the intention of the English Statesman. He concludes by abstracting the question into short propositions.

"I see in the proposed negociation, only three possible forms of discussion:

"Negociation with England and the Allies which she acquired at the time of the formation of the third coalition:

"Negociation with all the powers of Europe, with the addition of America:

"Negociation with England alone.

"The first of these forms is inadmissible, because it would subject the Emperor to the influence of the third coalition, which no longer exists. . . . . The second form of negociation would eternalize the War. . . . . The third therefore is the only one which can be desired by those who really wish for peace."

Mr. Fox's answer is extremely important.

"*April* 20.—Your Excellency mentions that, in the proposed negociation, you know but of three possible forms of discussion.

"The first appears to you inadmissible,

"According to what I have had the honour to write to you, you must be convinced, Sir, that the third is incompatible, both with our fundamental ideas of justice and honour, and with our conception of the interests of our country. The second is not perhaps bad, so far as regards its principle; but besides the delays which it would occasion, it would scarcely be practicable in the present conjuncture.

"It is therefore with much regret, that I am obliged to declare frankly to your Excellency, that I see no hope of peace at this moment, if you should not be disposed to negociate in the manner which we have proposed. . . . . The affair, in fine, is reduced to one single point. Will you negociate conjointly with Russia? We answer, yes: But if you require us to negociate separately, we answer, no."

The clear and decisive tone of this language, it might have been thought, could never have been misunderstood or evaded, by any———crafty politicians excepted.

M. Talleyrand does not in his next letter, June 2, give up his point, or employ language equally frank; but renounces the ridiculous idea of excluding Britain from the continent, by alliances, or otherwise; and thinks it his duty to propose,

"1st. To negociate in the same preliminary forms which were adopted during the administration of the Marquis of Rockingham, in 1782; Forms, which were not renewed with so much advantage in the negociations of Lisle, but which were perfectly successful in the negociations which preceded the treaty of Amiens; 2dly, To establish as a basis, two fundamental principles; the first, which I take from your letter of the 26th March, namely, "*That the two states should have* "*for their object that the peace be honour-* "*able for them and their respective allies,* "*and at the same time of a nature to se-* "*cure, as far as is in their power, the fu-* "*ture tranquillity of Europe.*" The second principle shall be, an acknowledgement on the part of the two powers of their mutual right of intervention and guaranty in continental and in maritime affairs. His Majesty, far from being unwilling to make this avowal, delights in raising it to a principle; and, in thus explaining his real intentions, I think I have given you a decisive proof of his pacific dispositions."

To this Mr. Fox replies, June 14.

"After the open disavowal which you have made of the intention falsely imputed to you with respect to our continental connections, no doubt can exist upon that essential point, and it would be the more distressing that difficulties in *form* rather than *substance*, should prolong a war which the two governments equally desire to terminate.

"Let us come to what your Excellency proposes.

"The form of negociation which took place during Lord Rockingham's administration is more particularly present to my memory, as I then held the same office with which His Majesty has lately been pleased to honour me. Let France and England change situations, and the form you mention is exactly similar to that which I proposed.

"We then treated with France and her allies; let France now treat with us and our allies. The basis offered in your second proposition is exactly conformable to the views of our government, provided it be well understood, that, whilst we mutually acknowledge our respective rights of intervention and guaranty with regard to the affairs of Europe, we also mutually agree to abstain from all encroachment upon the greater or lesser states which compose it."

So far the intercourse between the minister of the respective countries was direct: but, in the month of June, Lord Yarmouth being released from the depôt of British prisoners at Verdun, and visiting Paris, was sent for by M. Talleyrand; and commissioned to pass over into England, with a confidential message to Mr. Fox. His lordship, much to

his honour, declined this interference, unless the free restoration of Hanover was previously agreed to: and he thus writes to Mr. Fox—June 13.

"M. Talleyrand then broke off the conversation, desiring me to return the third day after. At the expiration of this time I waited upon him again, when he informed me that, considering the extreme stress which appeared to be laid upon this point, Hanover should make no difficulty.

"Authorised by the concession of that in which the honour of the King and that of the nation appeared most interested, I inquired whether the possession of Sicily would be demanded, it having been so said, "*Vous "l'avez, nous ne vous la demandons pas; "si nous la possédions elle pourroit augmen-"ter de beaucoup les difficultés.*" [You are in possession of it; we do not ask it of you; if we possessed it, it might very much augment our difficulties.] Considering this to be very positive both from the words and the manner of delivering them, I conceived it improper to make further question. "Nous ne vous demandons rien" [We ask nothing from you] amounting to an admission of the *uti possidetis* as applicable to His Majesty's conquests."

In the mean while, Bonaparte, as it should seem, was informed by his brothers, that the kingdoms of Holland and Naples were not worth their holding. Concerning Holland the French plenipotentiary afterwards writes,

"Supposing that the Cape, Surinam, and other Dutch possessions could have been finally detached from the kingdom of Holland, is it not certain that its existence as a nation would become from that very cause impossible; and that its incorporation with the French empire would have been the necessary consequence of a refusal given by England to restore to it its colonies? What, in fact, could be the means of maintaining a nation which would have nothing but debts, and from which the total deprivation of all commerce would take away the possibility of paying them? Whatever their excellencies the plenipotentiaries of His Britannic Majesty may alledge, it is impossible that they should not be convinced, that it is a very different thing for Great Britain, to see the Texel and the mouths of the Rhine and of the Meuse in the power of the French revenue officers, or to see them in the power of the Dutch. Thus, therefore, Holland, without the restitution of its colonies, would necessarily become a province of the French empire; for, on accepting the crown of Holland, Prince Lewis formally declared his intention of renouncing it, if the Dutch colonies were not restored at the general peace."

Neither could Naples exist without also possessing Sicily. [The reason of this importance of Sicily to Naples, may probably be explained in a future number of our work.] Sicily in fact, proved to be a great obstacle; as Lord Yarmouth very sensibly foresaw. Mr. Fox's directions, June 26, in reply to his lordship, are of great consequence, in exposing the fallacies of the statement published by France, purporting to be the history of this negociation.

"I have no conception on what ground M. Talleyrand can recede from what he said so distinctly to your lordship before, upon the subject of Sicily: "*Vous l'avez, nous ne "vous demandons rien,*" [You are in possession of it; we ask nothing from you.] are words that made the more impression on me, because, those contained in the latter clause of the sentence had been used by his Excellency in one of his letters to me. It was on the faith of the *uti possidetis* being to be strictly observed as the basis, and particularly Sicily, on which satisfaction had been given to your lordship, that His Majesty was induced to authorize your lordship to hold further conferences with M. Talleyrand. Any tergiversation or cavil therefore on that article, would be a breach of the principle of the proposed basis in its most essential part. . . . . Your lordship should fairly state to M. Talleyrand, that you are not authorised to make any use of them [your full powers] formally, until M. Talleyrand returns to his former ground with respect to Sicily. Your lordship is directed further, to acquaint that minister, that, if Russia offers to treat separately, it is only in the way in which we do; that is to say, separately in form, but in substance, in concert with each other. And here you will recollect that this very circumstance was canvassed in your former conversations with M. Talleyrand, when that minister expressed himself clearly that there would be no objection on the part of France to such preconcert. . . . . The result of what I have stated to your lordship is this: 1st, That Sicily is a *sine qua non*; on which subject, if the French minister recedes from his former answer, it is in vain that any further discussion should take place."

On being charged with equivocation, in expressing his hopes of obtaining Sicily, M. T. communicated Buonaparté's expectations of taking that island by force; which the battle of Maida, not known at this time, happily frustrated. The discussion concerning Sicily continued: but the British negociator refused to open his powers, till he had satisfaction on this point. He writes, Jul 1, *midnight*. "That Talleyrand had again seen him; and proposed the Hanse Towns, as an establishment for the King of Naples, in lieu

of Sicily. This offer being refused: he afterwards, July 9, proposed Dalmatia, Albania, and Ragusa, as an indemnity for the loss of Sicily, to his Sicilian Majesty. This also met with insurmountable objections: and though it was considered by the British ministry, yet they deemed the very consideration of it, a favour. About this time, M. D'Oubril, the Russian negociator, opened his commission at Paris; and being very desirous of concluding a peace, fell into the snare laid for him by the French ministers, to induce him to sign a *separate* peace. Lord Yarmouth writes, July 19,—12 o'clock at night, that "remonstrating with M. D'Oubril, both upon his conduct and the impropriety of disguising his intention, I drew from him these words, which I wrote down in his presence. "Que voyant le danger immédiat de l'Au- "triche, s'il pouvoit la sauver il croiroit de son "devoir de le faire, même par une paix par- "ticulière." ["That being aware of the "immediate danger of Austria, if it was in "his power to save it, he should think it his "duty to do so, even by a separate peace."] All he now appears to claim is the return of the troops from Germany; and if he is willing to make peace on receiving an assurance that orders to that effect shall be sent, nobody can doubt, but that it will be signed, and probably not a battalion make a retrograde movement of fifty miles."

"I have used every argument to dissuade M. d'Oubril from so unadvised and unwise a measure, I hope more than I believe, with success. Indeed, I feared, from the first hour I met him, that he was come determined to make a peace, good or bad, with or without Great Britain. I may perhaps gain a day, which may be a great deal, if that day should produce dispatches from M. de Strogonoff. On the 17th, at night, the new arrangements for Germany were finally determined upon. The princes and the ministers who signed were scarce allowed time to read the deed.

"There is a considerable army forming at Bayonne; thirty thousand men are there already. This army is ostensibly destined against Portugal, but will take Spain likewise."

It appears that one of the conferences of this negociator with the French, lasted *fourteen hours*.

The suddenness of d'Oubril's conduct, in signing the peace, appears to have perplexed Lord Yarmouth extremely; as it seemed, that Britain now was left to terminate the war by herself; and all further debates about treating as allies, Russia and Britain in conjunction, were superseded. The French pushed the success they had obtained over d'Oubril, by instantly demanding Lord Yarmouth's full powers: displaying the evils he might prevent, by immediate compliance. Their urgency did not give his Lordship time to cool: and instead of asking advice of his court, in this new and very delicate conjuncture, with the best intentions in the world, he produced his powers, July 21; and thus gave to the negociation the appearance of being conducted by Britain *solely*; unconnected with any ally. General Clarke, confidential secretary to Buonaparté, was appointed to confer with him; and talked a great deal about various possessions: "the King of Prussia was to have the Hanse Towns"—refused decidedly: then he was to have "some smaller ports." The French negociator also tempted the British, with the idea, that Britain "might occupy some of the Portuguese foreign possessions." Lord Yarmouth writes, "in discussing for many hours these demands, I never for an instant admitted the possibility of his Majesty consenting to the cessions required."

The British ministry now felt the embarrassments of their situation: and Mr. Fox thus writes to Lord Yarmouth:

"In writing to your Lordship, it is not necessary to dwell on the humiliating conditions to which M. d'Oubril has thought proper to bind his sovereign. Of that minister's misconduct your Lordship appears fully sensible; and I doubt not you exerted yourself to the utmost to prevent it. When this was found impracticable, your Lordship was naturally placed in circumstances of considerable difficulty, and for which every allowance is to be made. But it is necessary for me to say, frankly, that it would on the whole have been more satisfactory to the King's servants if your Lordship had waited to know the impression which this new event might create here before you had produced your full powers. ..... Even as the matter now stands, it does not certainly preclude discussion. But this might have been continued unofficially. And it is apprehended that, by producing your powers on the very day after the signature of the Russian treaty, an impression may have been created very unfavourable to the further progress of the negociation."

It is but just that we should give Lord Yarmouth's reasons for his conduct. They open a view of projects, which is at once curious, and interesting. July 30.

"The fate of Holland and Naples were settled before I was honoured with his Majesty's confidence. My conversation here with M. Talleyrand soon convinced me that these were only preludes to still greater changes in the system of Europe. I saw at the same time a great desire of negotiation, before the final execution of some of the Emperor's schemes should have removed any hope of its being attended with success.

" This opinion, not preconceived or lightly taken up, but gradually formed from a variety of circumstances, was confirmed by the nature of the offers held out, unofficially indeed, but in such clear and unequivocal terms, that it was impossible to entertain any doubt of the intention of this government to adhere to them.

" The point which of all others was the most essential, and that on which satisfaction was due to the national honour and to that of his Majesty, Hanover, would, I was assured, be given up without restriction; for I did not then know we should be asked to allow the King of Prussia to obtain the sovereignty of some of the lesser principalities.

" I received similar assurances about Malta, and the Cape of Good Hope; nor have I any reason to doubt but that before Russia had made her peace separately, these terms might have been obtained, and the treaty have had solely for its basis the *uti possidetis*, with the sole exception in our favour of Hanover restored, and latterly indeed of some arrangements tolerable to all parties in exchange for Sicily.

" M. Talleyrand held the same language to me, with respect to Russia, which he had before held with regard to the affairs of Germany. " You have now been here a " month; we have been willing to converse " with you, to give you an insight into our " views, and to communicate them to the " British government. We told you, that " if you had the powers, and would enter " into negotiation, we would not sign the " arrangement of Germany. A reasonable " time was left for you to consult your go- " vernment; we had no answer. The ar- " rangement was signed, *et nous n'en re- " viendrons jamais*, [and we will never recede " from it]. We now ask you whether you " will treat before Russia has signed, which " will not pass two days."

" It cannot be necessary to state my answer to such a proposition. I will only add, that the treaty with Russia was signed within the time mentioned, and then commenced the difficulty of my situation.

" Switzerland," I was told by the same authority, " is on the eve of undergoing a great change." This cannot be averted " but by a peace with England; but still less " can we alter, for any other consideration, " our intention of invading Portugal. The " army destined for that purpose is already " assembling at Bayonne. This is for the " determination of Great Britain."

" But I confess the point of all others the most decisive in inducing me to produce my full powers, was the language held respecting Prussia.

" Prusia demands from us a declaration " respecting Hanover; we cannot consent " wantonly to lose the only ally France has " had since the revolution; the declaration " once made, *nous n'en pouvons nous re- " tracter*, [we cannot retract]. Would you " have us break entirely with Prussia, when " we cannot even say that Great Britain will " negotiate with us? Are you here only " with orders to delay our measures till the " season of the year makes exertion impos- " sible, or can you treat? If so, is not the " assurance we give you that Hanover, Mal- " ta, and the Cape, shall not be contested, " sufficient to induce you to do so? Must " we lay before the British government our " exact terms, before they will even avow " negotiation with so great a power as that " of France? or shall we execute our other " projects, as we did those in Holland and " Naples?"

" Undoubtedly, Sir, conversations of this sort, confirmed even as they were by the events passing under my eyes, could never have induced me to commit his Majesty's confidential servants upon any point upon which I had not received their instructions, and which left no time to receive them; but I did not think myself at liberty to shift from myself the responsibility thus thrown upon me, at the risk of seeing Portugal and Switzerland share the same fate which Germany has just experienced, and Hanover confirmed to Prussia, until such time as his Majesty's arms should recover the possession of it.

" The mode of proceeding of this government left me no alternative. Either to avow negotiation, or shut up every opening to it, was my only option.

" I felt that I pledged his Majesty to nothing except the fact of negotiation, already privately known to every court in Europe.

" I carefully forbore giving any written paper, or admitting even the possibility of any other basis than that of the *uti possidetis*.

" I have ascertained the real extent of the pretensions of France; and I did consider myself to have prevented a great evil at a small expense by having given time to yourself and his Majesty's other confidential servants, to provide by the further instructions you might judge proper, for the interest of the powers, thus, for the moment at least, saved from the grasp of France."

The step taken by the British cabinet was, perhaps the most prudent that could be; they publicly joined lord Lauderdale in commission with lord Yarmouth, and gave their commissioners instructions to bring the adversary to the point at once, either to treat on the principle of " each party holding what it was in possession of," which included the admission of Sicily, that being held by Britain for her ally; or of closing discussions which were perfectly useless, as to any good purpose or

event. Accordingly when lord Lauderdale arrived in Paris, and had been recognized in his public character August 6, he delivered a long note August 7, in which he insisted on the direct admission of this principle by France; stating, that it was in consequence of the proposition of M. Talleyrand, "the emperor desired nothing which England held," that Mr. Fox had been induced to continue the negociation, and that England would not abandon this proposition.

This note received a marked and decided answer; in which the French negociator, General Clarke, declares,

"The court of France has constantly refused to admit in the same negotiation, the courts of England and Russia, and whatever desire his Majesty the Emperor of the French, King of Italy, may have, to see a general peace shortly re-established, no consideration could induce him to violate that principle of his policy..... After several months of discussion, the cabinet of London yielded this point, and his excellency the Earl of Yarmouth arrived publickly at Calais, and afterwards at Paris, for the purpose of treating for peace.

"As to Sicily, in this very supposition his Majesty the Emperor and King would not have left it to his enemies; but his Majesty would only have thought that the conquest of this island should have preceded the opening of the negociations; and while Prussia and Russia have either guarantied or recognized the changes which have taken place in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, is it to be supposed that England could have prevented the conquest of Sicily, which is separated from the Continent only by a channel of less than two thousand toises? ..... His Majesty the Emperor of the French, King of Italy, could not consider the peace as honourable, if, by one of its conditions, he was to lose a single subject, and of however little importance the colony of Tobago may be, it suffices, that it made part of the French empire at the time his Majesty took the reins of government, to prevent his ever signing a treaty in which the alienation of that colony, or of any other which belongs to him in the same manner, shall be comprized. No reasonable Englishman can have flattered himself with the contrary; and his Majesty, in the position in which he stands, would, by consenting to it, lose the esteem of every brave and generous person, even among his enemies..... The undersigned is directed to declare, that his Majesty the Emperor and King considers as a disgrace the very idea of a negotiation, founded on the *uti possidetis*. It is the more contrary to his principles, inasmuch as his Majesty has restored his conquests, and that he should be now reigning over a population the double of that which he in fact governs, if, at the conclusion of the treaties of peace which he made at the expiration of the several coalitions, he had taken the *uti possidetis* for his only principle."

The British plenipotentiaries answered this epistle, by repeating their affirmations of what Mr. Talleyrand had *originally* said: and deep regret that by so absolute and decided a departure from that basis on the part of the French government, the hopes and expectations of the two nations must be entirely frustrated."

The delivery of this paper may be considered as the close of the attempt to effect a peace. The concurrent delay occasioned by the time occupied in learning from Petersburgh, whether d'Oubril's treaty would be ratified by the emperor of Russia was consumed, partly in excuses, partly in the delivery of official notes, and in conversations with little or no object. The British having fruitlessly insisted on "keeping what they had got," repeatedly applied for their passports; but they applied in vain, for the French, justly dubious whether the emperor Alexander would sanction the conduct of d'Oubril, gradually softened in their tone, as the time drew near for the expected answer from Petersburgh; and when the news of the (anticipated) refusal arrived, September 3, they proposed sundry matters to the English negociators, which they thought would prove agreeable. But, the basis being rejected by the French, of "each party keeping what he possessed" (the British clearly *possessing* Sicily) rendered the whole abortive. Lord Yarmouth had been some time in England, and lord Lauderdale was left sole negociator. This nobleman demanded his passports repeatedly; and after many delays, even after both Bonaparte and Talleyrand had left Paris for Mentz with a view to operations against Prussia, whose affairs with France, assumed a warlike aspect, and issued in war, he at length received them, and quitted Paris, October 7.

These papers are accompanied by a copy of his majesty's declaration of October 21, vide Panorama, p. 317, and terminate by notice of an affront offered Russia, by the Ottoman Porte, at the instigation of the French ambassador there, Sebastiani: with a copy of a rescript delivered by that ambassador to the Reis Effendi, Sept. 16, 1806, in which he urges other measures, still more injurious to Russia and England: no less than the shutting up the passage of the Dardanelles from both those powers. But, this, with other information, is, of necessity, postponed for the present month.

OBITUARY.

A letter from Soissons, dated June 1806, informs us that Madame Marie-Charlotte de la Rochefoucauld-Memont, the last abbess of Notre-Dame, of that city, had just died there.

She was appointed abbess of Paraclet in 1768. Ten years she governed that house founded by Abelard, of which Eloisa had been first abbess; and where had been preserved, until the revolution, the relics of those two unfortunate personages, whose tomb was likewise to be seen there.

In 1778, Madame de la Rochefoucauld left the abbey of Paraclet, being promoted to that of Notre-Dame of Soissons, one of the most ancient in France, and one of the first in regard to revenue, to the distinguished birth of its abbesses, and especially to the regularity of religious discipline which was observed in the house. Madame de la Rochefoucauld had succeeded to four abbesses of the same name, who had been eminent for their benevolent munificence, and other virtues. Madame Marie-Charlotte de la Rochefoucauld followed in the same path; ardent piety, tender and liberal charity towards the poor, attention to the discharge of her duty, and kind services to all the inhabitants of Soissons, were her principal characteristics, and had procured her their universal gratitude, and heartfelt attention. In the interior of her cloister, she shewed herself less an abbess or a superior, than a friend amongst her friends; or rather a tender mother encircled by her daughters. She continued so till the time of the revolution, marking every day of her life by some act of beneficence, and without having ever been outside of the premises, notwithstanding she had a carriage at her disposal, allowed by an ancient custom, on account of the high rank of the abbesses. This coach was not to her an article of useless luxury; it was at the service of all the families in town on occasion of marriages, or other occurrences whenever they wanted it. The inhabitants generally applied to the noble abbess for all manner of services, and she never refused assisting them, whether out of her own pocket, or by using her interest.

At the critical period of the revolution, she had her share of those calamities which befel persons of her rank and situation in life, and bore them with patient resignation. For a time she was deprived of her liberty. Reduced to poverty, we have seen her almost blind, attended by a lay sister who had been infirm from her youth, and who never forsook her; partly supported by her family, and the trifling salary which the nuns, who had continued with her, received for instructing a few children. She after a time entirely lost her sight; but her heroic patience, her even temper, and her truly christian resignation, never once failed her, although she had severe trials to encounter; two of her brothers, the one bishop of Beauvais, and the other of Saintes, were massacred in the convent of the Carmelites, at the dreadful epoch of September 1792, which days ought to be effaced from the calendar, and should be attributed to no age, as the chancellor de l'Hopital said of *St. Bartholomew's* day. Madame de la Rochefoucauld died May 27, 1806, aged 74.*

Her funeral was accompanied with honourable pomp. The whole town lamented her loss; all remembered that this lady had formerly been their benefactress, although for above fifteen years she had been an old, infirm, distressed nun—an instance of the instability of earthly happiness, and at the same time, a model of every christian virtue.

M. H. C. Boie expired at Meldorf in Holstein, in his 61st year, February 25. German literature was considerably indebted to his exertions. In 1770 he commended the German Almanach of the Muses; afterwards he edited the respectable publication, the *Deutsches Museum*. A very great number of his poetical pieces have at various periods appeared in the different periodical works of the time, and many of them have been translated or imitated in English and in French.

M. l'Abbé de Fontenay, author of several literary productions, and editor successively of the *Petites Affiches de Province*, of the *Affiches de Paris*, and of the *Journal général de France*, died at Paris, March 28, aged 69.

M. l'Abbé Lyonnais, member of several academies, and author of the History of Lorraine, died at Nantz, June 14.

The right reverend Steven Alexander John Baptist Maria Bonnier, late bishop of Orleans, and formerly one of the most formidable chiefs of the Chouan army, died at Paris, October 1. He was born at Daon, October 31, 1764, and was consecrated bishop of Orleans April 11, 1802, after having disbanded the rebel royalists, who served under his command at the time when the unfortunate Georges, conjointly with himself was in the zenith of his celebrity; he was buried with funeral pomp.

We are informed by letter from Auch, of the death of Pierre Monnede, who had attained his 116th year. He worked as a common labourer till within a few days of his death. He remembered the war of the succession of Spain in Louis the XIVth's time. In consequence of his extreme weakness, which prevented him from swallowing food, he was literally starved to death. What is very remarkable he had never experienced a day's illness.

* For an account of the assassination of her family, vide Panorama, pages 754, and 755, in our life of Condorcet.

LITERARY PROSPECTIVE.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Mr. C. Butler of Cheam, is preparing for the press, an easy Introduction to the Mathematics, on a popular plan; designed as a useful introduction and companion to those elementary books which are usually put into the hands of the student, and a necessary assistant to those who study without a master: it will be published by subscription.

The publication of a Hebrew Bible, printed with a literal and interlineary English translation will commence this month, in numbers at one shilling each. That part of the Hebrew nation resident in England, has long been convinced of the necessity of an undertaking of this kind, particularly as conducive to the character of their youth. The more wealthy of that nation have subscribed liberally to the extensive and unprecedented undertaking.

The fifth volume of the Poetical Register, containing a great variety of original poems by eminent writers, numerous, scarce, and fugitive pieces, and brief criticisms on the poetic and dramatic publications of 1805, is in the press, and will appear at an early period in the month of January.

Shortly will be published by subscription, by Mr. Thomas Burnet, in one foolscap octavo volume, illustrated with an elegant frontispiece, the Sweets of Solitude, and other poems.

It may gratify the curious in Oriental Literature, to be informed that a number of articles, principally in the Bengalee language, sent by the Baptist Missionaries in Bengal, are now on sale, at Mr. Burditt's, Paternoster Row.

There is at present printing at Edinburgh, an account of a Tour, through the Orkney and Shetland Islands, by Mr. Neill, Secretary to the Natural History Society in Edinburgh. The author, after describing the objects of natural history which occurred in his progress, treats fully of the state of agriculture and the fisheries, in those much neglected and interesting islands. The tour is to be followed by mineralogical surveys of Shetland, from the pen of Dr. Traill of Liverpool, who lately visited those northern islands.

Mr. Bolingbroke of Norwich, who has recently returned from Demerara, after a residence of five years in that and the adjoining colonies, intends to publish an account of his voyage, including new and interesting particulars of the present condition of the various European settlements on that coast of South America.

Mr. Blore has made considerable progress in a topographical account of Rutlandshire.

Mr. Fortescue of Gray's Inn is said to be engaged in a Topographical Dictionary.

Dr. Callcot announces, in the preface of his Musical Grammar lately published, that he has not abandoned the design formed some years since of compiling a Musical Dictionary. His original plan merely professed to comprehend an abridgement of Walther, Rousseau, &c.; but, when the friendship of Mr. Kollman (organist of the chapel at St. James's) had assisted him with some valuable treatises, he found it necessary to relinquish the idea of immediate publication.

The publication of an improved edition of the Encyclopædia Perthensis commences with this year: it will be comprised in 45 parts of half a volume each, containing 360 pages, super-royal octavo; they will be published monthly.

The Rev. Rogers Ruding, B. D. Vicar of Maldon in Surrey, proposes to publish by subscription, an historical account of the Coinage of Britain and its dependencies, from the earliest periods of authentic history to the present time. In this work will be found all the facts relating to the subject, which the author has been able to collect, from Cæsar's discovery of Britain to this time, in chronological order. These facts have been gathered from records in the Tower Roll's Chapel, Exchequer, and other public offices; from the Rolls and Journals of Parliament; from statutes, proclamations, chronicles, and histories.

The Rev. John Brown, of Whitburn, is about to publish a second edition of the Memoirs of the Rev. James Hervey. He would feel himself particularly obliged to any person who could communicate unpublished letters, or authentic anecdotes of Mr. Hervey.

Mr. Reid, of Berwick upon Tweed, designs immediately to print a new edition (the fourth) of the Select Remains of the Rev. J Brown, late of Haddington. They contain Memoirs of his Life, Letters to his Friends, Religious Tracts, Addresses to his Children, An Account of his Dying Sayings, and his Dying Advice to his Congregation.

The late Mrs. Charlotte Smith having drawn up Memoirs of Part of her Literary Life, the same, accompanied by a Collection of her Letters, will shortly be presented to the world, by one of the members of her family.

Dr. Herdman has in the press his second discourse on the interesting subject of the management of Infants and the treatment of their diseases. It is written in a plain familiar style to render it intelligible and useful

to mothers and all those who have the management of infants.

The first part of Dr. Clutterbuck's inquiry into the seat and nature of Fever is expected to make its appearance in the course of the ensuing month.

Sir John Sinclair has nearly ready for publication in four volumes octavo, his long promised Code of Health and Longevity; consisting of a detail of the circumstances which tend to promote health and longevity, with rules for preserving health.

Dr. Davis is preparing for the press an abridgement of that part of professor Pinel's celebrated work on Philosophical Nosography, which treats of febrile disorders.

The fifth edition of Parkinson's medical admonitions to families is now in the press. To this edition has been added several important instructions respecting the treatment of diseases, by an early attention to which the progress of diseases may be stopped, and further aid rendered unnecessary. Such observations are also introduced as will mark the degrees of danger in the sick, shew the difference between one disease and another, point out the duties of those who attend on the sick, and teach the proper management of complaints incident to children.

In the course of next month will be commenced the Political Review, and Monthly Register, by B. Flower, of Harlow, containing remarks on the state of public affairs, a record of the most important events, foreign and domestic, state papers, parliamentary proceedings, a review of the principal publications relating to general politics and civil and religious liberty, original correspondence, &c. &c.

J. Gifford and H. R. Yorke, Esqrs. have in great forwardness, the History of the administration of the late William Pitt, which will be comprised in four octavo volumes.

In a few days will be published in six large volumes octavo, the speeches made in parliament by the Right Honourable Charles James Fox, and the Right Honourable William Pitt, in the order in which they were actually delivered in the House of Commons, and opposed to each other in regular order. The public will, by this mode of arrangement, be put into possession of all the main arguments that have been produced for and against every great political question that has been agitated during the last thirty years; a period of uncommon interest to every lover of his country, and indeed to every individual of the civilized world. Prefixed to the first volume will be given memoirs, drawn from authentic sources, of the gentlemen whose characters the work is intended to illustrate; and the whole will be accompanied with such notes and introductory observations as will render it a brief history of the times in which these celebrated statesmen flourished.

In the course of this year, M. C. Malorti de Martemont, Master of Fortification and Artillery, at the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, will publish by subscription, (to be paid on delivery) An Essay on Military Reconnoitring; with the Method of Surveying in the Field, either with or without Instruments, by Pacing, on Horseback, and by the Eye.

A new work commences with this year intitled, The Fathers of the English Church; or Selections from the Writings of the Reformers and early Divines of the English Protestant Church. The series will commence with the Works of Tindal, and a number will continue to be published regularly on the first day of each succeeding month.

The Leading Features of the Gospel delineated, by the Rev. N. Sloan, Minister of Dornock, Dumfrieshire, will appear in a few days.

A new edition of Clavigero's History of Mexico is in preparation.

The Rev. Edward Patteson, M. A. author of a General and Classical Atlas, will speedily publish An Introduction to Ancient and Modern Geography, in one small octavo volume, in the preface to which Mr. P. will particularly describe a method of applying the Atlas to purposes of geographical instruction.

The fifth edition of Curiosities of Literature is now in the press. the work is entirely recast: the most interesting topics are more completely and curiously investigated, and it has been the study of the writer to class and to compress as many events of Literary History as the limits of the work allowed.

The Dramatic Mirror, containing the Progress of the English Stage from the Days of Julius Cæsar to the present Time, will be published next month.

An Abridgement of Search's Light of Nature Pursued is in the press.

A new translation from the last Paris edition of Voltaire's History of Charles XIIth, King of Sweden, with a Biographical memoir of the author, will appear early in this month.

FRANCE.

On account of the late changes in foreign relations, as well as the internal affairs of various countries, many alterations both with regard to authorised codes of law, and national catechisms, which deserve to be noticed, will take place. As such, the new French civil codex, as soon as the Italian translation thereof shall have been completed, will be immediately introduced, without exception,

into the kingdom of Italy, and most probably, also into the kingdom of Naples. Some advices seem to lead to a supposition that these codes will also be introduced into the States of the Rhenish confederacy.—Whether the new French catechism will be introduced into the other catholic confederate states, is not yet so certain. They calculate on so great a demand for the catechism, that it is to be printed in stereotype, and a bookseller has purchased the copyright for 25,000 dollars.

The ascendancy which English literature has obtained in France, is most clearly evinced by the projected commencement of a Monthly Repertory of English literature, to be printed in English, at Paris. It is to contain a catalogue of all books published in Great Britain, and reviews of every work deserving notice, (politics excepted), together with the proceedings of learned Societies; the progress of the fine arts; theatrical productions; patents for new discoveries; biographical memoirs of remarkable characters deceased; reports on the state of commerce, agriculture, &c.

M. L. Dubut intends to publish a work intitled Civil Architecture; it is intended to exhibit more particularly, Country Houses of all species and forms, intended for erection on domains of different extent; for the service, not only of persons whose professional occupations are engaged in this department, but also for such as may wish to superintend the erection of their own buildings.

SWEDEN.

The Swedish law and the old Swedish catechism of Serebelius, are introduced into Swedish Pomerania. The court chaplain, Ludeke, at Nordkoping, has been appointed to translate the catechism into German, for the use of the schools in Pomerania; and the court chaplain, Dr. Hackenburg, of Stockholm, translates the Swedish liturgy into German. A German translation of the Swedish laws is already prepared.

ARCHITECTURAL NOMENCLATURE.—*From Britton's Architectural Antiquities.*—The usual common-place terms of Saxon and Gothic, are not only extremely vague, but, from indiscriminate application, are completely nugatory. It is time this was remedied; and it is rather a reproach to antiquarian literature, that such improper and imperfect words should have so long continued in general use. Though almost every writer on this subject reprobates the latter term as applied to architecture, yet all continue to use it, as if it were criminal to correct inaccuracy, or oppose an absurd custom, that would be "more honoured in the breach, than in the observance." Though I am not disposed to employ an imperious dictatorial tone, to enforce the necessity of the following arranged ment and classification, yet I am persuaded that every one who feels the necessity of rendering language unequivocal, of being definite and precise in his own writings, and who hopes to avoid all mistakes in construing the terms employed by others, will admit the propriety of the plan now suggested, or give it a better modification.

I would recommend that each decisive variety of style, in ancient buildings, be designated by one of the following phrases, agreeably to the era of its prevalence; and to be more precise in these, it may be necessary to specify five divisions, or eras of time; each of which is marked by a distinct style of architecture in the public buildings erected during the respective periods.

First style.—*Anglo-Saxon.* This will embrace all buildings that were erected between the times of the conversion of the Saxons, and the Norman conquest, from A. D. 597, to A. D. 1066.

Second style.—*Anglo-Norman*, by which will be meant that style which prevailed from 1066 to 1189, including the reigns of William I. and II. Henry I. Stephen, and Henry II.

Third style.—*English*, from 1189 to 1272, embracing the reigns of Richard I. John, and Henry III.

Fourth style.—*Decorated English*, from 1272 to 1461, including the reigns of Edward I. II. and III. Richard II. and Henry IV. V. and VI.

Fifth style.—*Highly decorated*, or *florid English*, from 1461 to 1509, including the reigns of Edward IV. and V. Richard III. and Henry VII.

From this era we lose sight of all style and congruity; and the public buildings erected during the reigns of Henry VIII. Elizabeth and James I. may be characterized by the terms of debased English, or Anglo-Italian.

Though each is very distinct and different from the other, yet during the intermediate time when one style was growing into repute and the other sinking in favour, there will be found a mixture of both in one building, which is not referable to either, and which has constituted the greatest problem in antiquarian science.

Engravings of the Moon in Plano.—The late Mr. Russell, celebrated among men of science for the production of the lunar globe, left at his death, two lunar planispheric drawings, the result of numberless telescopic observations, scrupulously measured by a micrometer: one of which drawings exhibits the lunar disk in a state of direct opposition to the sun, when the eminences and depressions are undetermined, and every intricate part, arising from colour, form, or inexplicable causes, is surprisingly developed

and exquisitely delineated; the other, of precisely the same proportion, represents the eminences and depressions of the moon determined as to their form with the utmost accuracy, producing their shadows when the sun is only a few degrees above the horizon of each part. The former of these was beautifully and most correctly engraved by Mr. Russell, who had likewise very considerably advanced in the engraving of the latter, when death terminated his labours; it is, however, left in such a forward state, that it will be finished with the greatest exactness, and all possible dispatch.

Mr. William Russell, son of the late Mr. Russell, proposes to publish by subscription these lunar plates, which have been long promised to the scientific world; and the first engraving is now offered for their inspection. The whole will be incomparably the most complete lunar work ever offered in any age—a work, the more carefully it is examined, whether as to its accuracy or elegance (effected, indeed, by extreme labour during twenty-one years), the more it will excite the wonder and admiration of the diligent inquirer.

The utility of these engravings is best expressed in the author's own words: "The principal use of the moon to astronomers, is, that of ascertaining the longitude of places by the transit of the earth's shadow, when the moon is eclipsed. The shadow of the earth coming in contact with many known spots, if the observation be made in different places at the same time, the longitude of each place could by this means be ascertained with great precision, provided the spots to be made choice of be sufficiently represented and recognised; but there being no faithful delineation of the moon, and the edges of thots which are known being undefined, the observations made have not been so useful as could be wished: for this purpose, it is believed, Mr. Russell's labours will be found very useful, and will very much add to the certainty and precision of the observations on lunar eclipses; as the chief design of his planisphere, representing the moon in a state of opposition to the sun, is directed to this end, and which he has spared no pains in bringing to perfection."

These engravings, it is expected, will not only prove of great utility to the astronomer, but lead to many important speculations in natural philosophy. The remarkable changes of forms in various eminences, the different radiations of light observable at one age of the moon and not at another, with its numerous surprising phenomena, are in these plates faithfully and fully expressed, so as to form a work, it is presumed, highly interesting in the departments either of astronomy, or natural philosophy.

STATE OF TRADE.

Commerce is that generally connecting bond which unites mankind: it cannot be disturbed or destroyed in one place, *solely*. Those who raise the article originally, and those who consume it; those who deliver, and those who receive, are reciprocally deeply interested, if not equally. By custom and habit, that becomes a necessary, which at first might easily have been dispensed with, or, if it had never been introduced, the want of it would not have been felt. Such is the description of very many of the subjects of commerce. Nature has distributed to all parts of the earth sufficient sustenance for its inhabitants: commerce exchanges superfluities; but, after a lapse of time, these superfluities become comforts, and, at length, necessaries. Whoever, then, prohibits the exchange of commodities, prohibits the reception of comforts and necessaries, by those, to whom habit is become a second nature, and these suffer little less by the privation, than those who raise, or those who deliver, suffer by the interruption of their industry. It is true, that, for a time, severe edicts may terrify dealers; but, after a while, so many will find their advantage in eluding the measures taken to enforce them, that in some place or other, and gradually in many places, the barrier will be broken, and what dare not shew itself publicly, will be introduced by stealth. Such will prove, in all probability, the consequences of those oppositions to and interruptions of, the British commerce in Europe, which Buonaparté has projected and endeavoured to establish. Neither will his BLOCKADE of Great Britain, meet with more effectual success. He has not *power* to enforce it, and especially, as it is the mutual interest of thousands of individuals, indeed of whole nations, to counteract the intentions of this violent chief. We hope, therefore, in no very distant period to congratulate our country on the undiminished value of its trade; and we intend to present in our Monthly Report, such information as facts may warrant, and which we doubt not from the quarter whence we are favoured with it, will fully justify the dependence and confidence of our readers.

Lloyd's Coffee-house, Dec. 15, 1806.

TIME sufficient has not yet passed for the return of the ships which sailed with goods

for Buenos Ayres. Six weeks is the time for a single ship in full lading; eight weeks the medium time for a convoy of merchantmen, to accomplish the passage in, between the British West Indies and the ports of Great Britain and Ireland. The distance to Buenos Ayres is so much farther, that three months may be allotted as the term for that voyage. The returns of the ships which have gone thither, cannot then, be within less than six months from the period of their departure.

It is not improbable but the conquest of Buenos Ayres, and other places on the continent of South America, may be viewed, at first, with no high satisfaction, by many inhabitants of the British West India isles. The smuggling trade by the West Indies to Spanish America yielded, a hundred years ago, between one and two millions sterling. It was particularly encouraged, in 1766, by the opening of a number of free ports, to admit raw materials—excepting only the staple articles of British colonial produce; and to send out British manufactures; both free of duties. From those free ports the Spanish dominions in America have received ever since, by smuggling, a great share of their supplies of European commodities. But our conquest of Buenos Ayres, and our new views on the continent of South America, now threaten to change almost the whole course of this trade.

At Hamburgh, and in other parts of Germany, the French have seized much less British property than they had expected. But, British merchants have not lately hazarded too much of their property within the reach of the French, upon either consignments or unpaid bills of exchange. A good part of the British property at Hamburgh was reshipped, and sent down the Elbe, as the French troops approached. In other instances, the British property has been more or less covered by the seasonable transferrence of it to protected foreigners. Not a few, however, of those who had British produce or manufactures, the property of persons of this country, in their hands, have dishonourably betrayed it to the French, and gone *snacks* with the plunderers.

Tonningen is, it seems, shut against the British trade. Dantzick is, also, within the power of the French. As, at this season, the last freights were prepared to be sent off for the ports of Britain, before the shutting up of the Baltic by the winter-frosts, it is probable that, wherever the exports of the countries on the Baltic have not been intercepted by the French in the interior country, they may have been shipped for this country in a proportion unusually large. The Baltic being shut in winter by frosts, the French progress in that quarter will not, for some months, materially injure us. But it interrupts cultivation, and breaks into the steadiness and regularity of commercial undertakings and correspondence.

The port of Gottenburgh is, for the present, much a gainer by the obstacles to the British trade in Germany and the Baltic. Our commodities must, for some time, be sent to it in large quantities.

Although the amount of the British property seized at Hamburgh be, comparatively, inconsiderable, yet our trade suffers much by the capture of that city. Bills had been drawn from the West Indies upon the consignments of produce; were accepted; were to be paid; could not be paid but upon the faith of bills again drawn upon consignments to Hamburgh. Since the consignments to Hamburgh are, if not lost, returned unsold, what becomes of the bills of exchange drawn in dependence on their sale? And how are the consignees in London to pay the bills of their West India correspondents? or, having paid them, to replace the money with their bankers, for the future business of their own trade? Besides, so much West India produce being thus left unsold, sugars and coffees become quite a drug in the market. The cost of sugar is such, that, at its present Gazette price, the planter can scarcely clear 12s. per cwt. by it. The continent of Europe is for coffees, still more than for sugars, the grand place of sale; England but a temporary depôt. What a severe blow then, does the present exclusion of British commodities from Germany and Holstein give to the hopes of the West India coffee planter, who was extending his plantations? It is, however, some comfort to reflect, that the people on the continent cannot subsist without coffee, and cannot have it in any adequate proportion from Arabia and Turkey, nor even by the intermediation of the Anglo-Americans, or the Danes. It is also, remarkable, that our trade to the continent of Europe, and even that part of its export which is in colonial produce, should have been, hitherto, so little injured by all Buonaparté's malicious endeavours. Its annual real value still exceeds £25,000,000 sterling; of which, more than £13,000,000, is in West India produce.

Buonaparté has wildly declared all neutral ships, entering or quitting British or Irish harbours, to be subject to capture by French ships of war or privateers. The proud formality of declaring the ports of the British empire in a state of blockade, may swell his presumption. It may even enhance the terror with which he is regarded on the continent. What more can it do? The Danes, the Portuguese, and the Anglo-Americans, are excluded by it, so far as France has naval power to enforce the blockade from taking part, hereafter, in the carrying navigation of

British commerce. But, will this take away the necessity for British goods on the continent, or in any other quarter where they are now, in ordinary consumption? Not at all. It can operate, only as a boon to our ship-owners. It must restore to them, some part of that carrying trade which had passed to neutrals, because neutrals could perform it cheaper. It must enhance the prices to the French, and other foreigners, by increasing the expense of freight, insurance, and other contingencies.—This is all.—It will not even encourage the institution of manufactures abroad, to rival ours. The obstacles of the wars on the continent are too insurmountable. It cannot but prove teizing to the Anglo-Americans: and it must tend to enflame their previous irritations against France.

Our trade to the Levant, and to the Black Sea, was threatened with some interruption by differences breaking out between Russia and Turkey. Hitherto it has not been disturbed in the Turkish ports. In the Italian seas, and on the coast of Barbary, it is sufficiently active. Nor is it less so in the Portuguese ports, for the supply of Portugal, Spain, and the Brazils.

The country trade of the British in India, both that of the company, and that of private merchants, is constantly enlarged. From the Red Sea to the most eastern coast of Asia is its range. British goods, those of Abyssinia, Arabia, and Persia, those of Hindoostan, China, &c. are the subjects of its traffic. It carries its enterprizes a great way inland. It is incessantly enlarging the Oriental markets for British manufactures.

The agricultural colony at Botany Bay is advancing gradually into a great mart for both British and East India produce. It is expected that the colonists of that settlement may be shortly able to furnish, from hides and wool, hemp and flax, their share in the Southern Whale Fishery, and from the part they may take in the fur-trade between India, and the north-west coast of America,—exports sufficient to repay for all the imports which the progress of the colony demands.

It is proposed, as an object highly important in a commercial view, to make a small establishment, on the now almost depopulated island of Otaheite; and to render it useful in the navigation to and from Botany Bay, as a place where ships may procure abundant supplies of pork and vegetables. The King of Owhyhee is making himself master of the other Sandwich Isles; is improving them to the greatest prosperity of agriculture and population; is ambitious to make them seats of manufactures and commerce; and even proposes to open a trade to Nootka Sound, and to Bengal.

The trade for furs to the north-west coast of America is entirely, or almost entirely, in the hands of the subjects of the United States. It is lucrative. India and China are the places of sale for the furs. One should think, that it might have been shared by British subjects. But, our Canada fur trade is profitable; as is, likewise, that of the Hudson's Bay company.

The progress of the Anglo American commerce deserves particular notice. The United States avail themselves, every day, more of their extent of sea-coast, their great rivers, their ship-timber and all their other advantages for navigation and commerce. They trade directly to our establishments in the East; and supply not only America, but even Europe with East-India commodities. They are, at the present time, carriers of the greater part of imports to the value of between nine and ten millions sterling, which America receives, annually, from Great Britain and Ireland. They have long carried on a vast trade to the French and Spanish West-Indies. They acquire continually more of the provision and lumber trade of our British sugar colonies.

The commercial intercourse between London and Ireland is, now, in full activity. The exchange with Dublin is but at 12 per cent, 3¼ above par, against Ireland. The imports from Ireland into the port of London, in the 14 days, ending December 5th, were 40 tons of beef; 595 tons butter; 40 tons bacon; 10 tons paper; 40 cwt. bees wax; 24,830 gallons of Irish brandy; 1,100,000 quills; 553,625 yards of Irish linen. Of these articles there are so many, not in raw produce, but in different states of manufacture, as to evince, that, if the political turbulence of their country were once entirely at rest, the Irish might quickly enrich themselves by manufacturing industry, to a degree that should leave them nothing to envy in the manufacturing wealth and activity of Great Britain.

The 3 per cents. now fluctuate between 58 and 59. The necessity that many stockholders are under, to sell out more or less, for the payment of their Christmas bills, is supposed to have been the chief cause of the late decline in the prices of Stock. The late disappointments at Hamburg have aided this effect. It is, besides, natural, however moderate the loan immediately wanted for the service of Government, that the expectation of such a loan, should operate, in some sort, to the depretiation of the present Stocks. Omnium, a few months since, at 13 per cent, prem. is now below 1 per cent premium. The following facts are interesting in the review of the fluctuations of our stocks since 1792.

3 per cent Consol.	March 1792	98¼
———	May 19th, 1797	47¼
———	May 31st, 1802	70¼
———	April 8th, ——	76½
———	April 21st, 1802	78¾
———	Feb. 23rd, 1803	72
———	March 8th, 1803	63
———	Nov. 30th, 1806	58½

BANKRUPTCIES SUPERSEDED.

Nov. 29. E. Arcanjeloz, of Crispin-street, Spitalfields, merchant.

Dec. 6. Joseph Steel, East Retford, Nottinghamshire, check-manufacturer.

BANKRUPTS.

Nov. 22. R. Hamilton, Stalbridge, linen-draper. *Attorney*, Warry, New-inn.

W. Dingle, Exeter, flour-merchant. *Att.* Sarel, Surrey-street, Strand.

J. A. Whitcomb, Gosport, common-brewer. *Att.* Shelton, Session-house, London.

G. Field, Bath, hatter. *Att.* Nethersole and Co. Essex-street, Strand.

J. Wareing, Goosnargh, farmer. *Att.* Barrets, Holborn-court, Gray's-inn.

T. Harris, Oxford-street, and Blackfriars-road, mattrass-maker. *Att.* Berry and Co. Walbrook.

T. Bywater, Tadcaster, common-brewer. *Att.* Barber, Gray's-inn.

J. Dalton and C. Wilson, Birmingham, dealers in flax. *Att.* Egerton, Gray's-inn.

T. Cantrell, Manchester, straw-hat manufacturer. *Att.* Ellis, Chancery-lane.

T. Morgan, of Downend, Glocestershire, corn-factor. *Att.* James, Gray's-inn.

J. Chamberlain, Prince's-place, Lambeth, dealer. *Att.* Webb, St. Thomas-street.

J. G. Smyth, Dyer's-court, Aldermanbury, insurance-broker. *Att.* Dennetts and Greaves, King's Arm's-yard, Coleman-street.

E. Baildon, Manchester, grocer. *Att.* Holland, Manchester.

H. Lee, Hollywell-street, Shoreditch, silversmith. *Att.* Lodington and Hall, Crown Office-row, Temple.

J. Percival, New London-street, merchant. *Att.* Druce, Billiter-square.

G. Williams, Bristol, broker. *Att.* Shephard and Adlington, Bedford-row.

B. Baddeley, Whitechapel, grocer. *Att.* Rivington, Fenchurch-buildings.

T. Whalley, Liverpool, merchant. *Att.* Blackstock, St. Mildred's-court, Poultry.

T. Williams, Swansea, dealer. *Att.* Blandford and Sweet, Inner Temple.

R. F. Saunders, Enfield Chace, grazier. *Att.* Nettlefold, Bouverie-street, Fleet-street.

Nov. 25. Gustavus Clay, Totnesu, Devonshire, carpenter. *Att.* Alexander, Bedford-row.

John Kent the younger, Southwick, Southampton, builder. *Att.* Atheson and Morgan, Austin-friars.

Geo. Bradley, Warrington, Lancaster, grocer. *Att.* Blackstock, Poultry.

Hen. Weeks, Edgware-road, Middlesex, carrier. *Att.* Sale, Strand.

John Pinder, Cudworth, York, maltster. *Att.* Blensdale, New-inn.

Sarah Stiles, and Mason Stiles, Dorking, Surrey, plumbers. *Att.* Mills, Ely-place.

Wm. Rouse, Worcester, silversmith. *Att.* Becke, Bream's-buildings, Chancery-lane.

Robt. Pringle, Northumberland-street, Strand, jeweller. *Att.* Jennings and Collier, Shire-lane.

Nov. 29. Clement Clements, Dagenham, Essex, potatoe-merchant. *Att.* Harding, Primrose-street, Bishopsgate.

Thos. Edwards, Duck's-foot-lane, Upper Thames-street, cotton-manufacturer. *Att.* Edwards, Castle-street.

Thos. J. Hopkins, Chigwell, Essex, brewer. *Att.* Martin, Vintner's-hall.

Thos. E. Smith, Great Trinity-lane, leather-seller. *Att.* Bolton and Co. Lawrence Pountney-hill.

Chas. William the elder, Turnham-green, butcher. *Att.* Kibblewhite and Co. Gray's-inn-place.

Wm. Manby, Strand, oil and colourman. *Att.* Spike, Elm-court, Temple.

Isaac Mencelin and David Amick, Cheapside, perfumers. *Att.* Clark, Sadlers-hall, Cheapside.

Luke Severn, Coleman-street, trunk-maker. *Att.* Popkin, Dean-street, Soho.

Chas. Cartwright, Compton-street, Soho, leather-seller. *Att.* Heath, Bermondsey-square.

Chas. Miles, Bermondsey-street, Southwark, fellmonger. *Att.* Sykes and Co. New-inn.

David Rees, Swansea, dealer. *Att.* Blandford and Sweet, Temple.

John G. Bradley, Warrington, Lancashire, grocer. *Att.* Blackstock, St. Mildred's-court, Poultry.

Dec. 2. Franc. Marshall, Strand, jeweller. *Att.* Atkinson, Castle-street, Falcon-square.

John Cook, Widford, Essex, victualler. *Att.* Aubrey, Took's-court, Cursitor-street.

Wm. Hopkins, Lemon-street, London, silk-thrower. *Att* Parnell, Spitalfields.

Dec. 6. Chas. Manley, Angel-court, Throgmorton-street, merchant. *Att.* Stevens, Little St. Thomas Apostle.

Wm. H. Pullen, Dartmouth, spirit-merchant. *Att.* Wright and Bovill, Chancery-lane.

Jesse Johnson, Macclesfield, Cheshire, cotton-spinner. *Att.* Edge, Inner Temple, London.

Emanuel Parquet, Goswell-place, City-road, rectifier. *Att.* Palmer and Co. Copthall-court, Throgmorton-street.

John Cherry, St. John-street, cabinet-maker. *Att.* Jones and Reynall, Lord Mayor's Court-office.

Wm. Ticken, Marlow-bridge, Berkshire, dealer. *Att.* Edmunds and Son, Exchequer-office of Pleas, Lincoln's-inn.

Jos. Rowland, Greystoke-place, Fetter-plane, carpenter. *Att.* Lee, Castle-street, Holborn.

Jas. Richmond, South Shields, merchant. *Att.* Bell and Brodrick, Bow-lane, Cheapside.

Sam. Pearson, Kexby Bridge, Yorkshire, corn-factor. *Att.* Evans, Thavies-inn.

Sam. Dyke, Bartholomew-close, tea-dealer. *Att.* Highmoor, Queen-street, Cheapside.

Sam. Beswick and John Grime, Hulme, Manchester, common-brewers. *Att.* Kay and Renshaw, Manchester.

Dec. 9. Step. Hambidge, Fetter-lane, and Wm. Hambidge, of Stroud, Glocestershire, clothiers. *Att.* Constable, Symond's-inn.

Piercy Roberts, Long-acre, victualler. *Att.* Murphy, Bouverie-street.

Wm. Thompson, Woodford, Essex, apothecary. *Att.* Mills and Robinson, Parliament-street.

Thos. Wright, Bollington, Cheshire, innholder. *Att.* Hall, Macclesfield.

John Dyson, Tottenham, gardener. *Att.* Taylor, Waltham-Abbey, Essex.

Sam. Stretton, Willingdon, Sussex, shopkeeper. *Att.* Langridge and Kell, Lewes.

John Edwards, Liverpool, merchant. *Att.* Blackstock, St. Mildred's-court, Poultry.

Thos. Barlow, Manchester, merchant. *Att.* Milne and Parry, Old Jewry.

Dec. 13. J. Wise, Manchester, cotton-merchant. *Att.* Duckworth and Chippindall, Manchester.

Edw. Roberts, Bush-lane, merchant. *Att.* Sherwood, Cushion-court, Old Broad-street.

Edw. Morgan, Noble-street, warehouseman. *Att.* Swain and Stevens, Old Jewry.

Thos. Steadman, late of Redmire, Yorkshire, grocer. *Att.* E. Chippendale, King's-Bench Walks, Inner Temple.

John Moule, King-street, Covent-garden, vintner. *Att.* James Richardson, New-inn.

John Shoolbred and Wm. Williams of Mark-lane, merchants. *Att.* Walton, Girdlers'-Hall, Basinghall-street.

Albert Vodell, of Paul's-Chain, furrier.

Dec. 16. John S. Peacock, Gray's-inn-lane, victualler. *Att.* Shaw, Dyer's-buildings, Holborn.

John Endall, Overnorton, Oxfordshire, carrier. *Att.* Meyrick and Broderip, Red Lion-square.

John Martin, jun. and John Russell, Liverpool, merchants. *Att.* John Cukitt, Liverpool.

Jos. Goodwin, Manchester, calico-manufacturer. *Att.* Cheshyre and Walker, Manchester.

Wm. Heywood, sen. Marsden, Yorkshire, cotton-spinner. *Att.* Evans, Thavies-inn.

Jas. Woodburne, Lancaster, druggist. *Att.* Blakelock, Elm-court, Temple.

John Crocker, Gosport, ship-chandler. *Att.* Williams and Brooks, Lincoln's-inn.

Jas. Milnes, jun. Saddleworth, Yorkshire, clothier. *Att.* Edmunds and Son, Lincoln's-inn.

Dec. 20. Thos. Sutton, Ringmore, Devonshire, ship-builder. *Att.* Williams and Manning, Exeter.

Geo. Leathern, Topsham, Devonshire, shipwright. *Att.* Bowring, Exeter.

Robt. Mason, Purleigh, Essex, dealer. *Att.* Druce, Billiter-square.

John Hubbard, Bethnall Green, brewer. *Att.* Collins and Waller, Spital-square.

John Rensford, of Fleet Market, victualler. *Att.* Blandford and Sweet, King's Bench Walks, Temple.

Wm. Wright, Borough High-street, plumber. *Att.* Barrow, Threadneedle-street.

James Millar, Liverpool, merchant. *Att.* John Cukit, Liverpool.

Thos. Bancutt, Long Buckby, Northamptonshire, money-scrivener. *Att.* Burton, Daventry.

Geo. Hawkes, Longfleet, Dorsetshire, tanner. *Att.* Parr, Poole.

Jas. Burt, New Lisle-street, Leicester-fields, straw hat manufacturer. *Att.* Beaurain and Dalton, Union-street, Bishopsgate.

John Bowman, Water-lane, Tower-street, brandy-merchant. *Att.* Druce, Billiter-square.

ARMY PROMOTIONS.

FROM THE LONDON GAZETTE.—Oct. 14.

36*th Foot.*—Maj. Hon. B. Cochrane, 96 foot, to be lieut. col. *v.* Hart.—Ens. R. Robison, to be lieut.—T. L'Estrange to be ens. *v.* Robison

37*th do.*—Lieut. B. F. Hall, 14 foot, to be lieut. *v.* Drewry

38*th do.*—Ens. J. Minchin and T. Batwell to be lieuts.—F. B. Soundwith, to be ens. *v.* Minchin —P. Blake to be ens. *v.* Batwell

39*th do.*—Ens. I. A. Jones to be lieut. *v.* Church. —G. Shuttleworth to be ens. *v.* Jones

40*th do.*—Ens. A. Cameron to be lieut.—P. Moore to be ens. *v.* Cameron.—C. Smith to be ens. *v.* Watson

42*d do.*— Milne to be ens. *v.* Bissett

50*th do.*—L. W. Stapleton to be capt. *v.* Ford.—Ens. R. North to be lieut.—Ens. T. Bate to be lieut. *v.* Stapleton.—R. Sanderson to be ens. *v.* North

54*th do.*—Capt. W. Burgh, 60 foot, to be capt. *v.* Howard, exch.—Ens. T. Chatteris to be lieut. *v.* Kirby.—E. Hall to be ens. *v.* Chatteris

59*th do.*—Ens. H. Pitman to be lieut. *v.* Dawson. —W. Waring to be ensign *v.* Pitman

60*th do.*—Capt. T. Howard, 54 foot, to be capt. *v.* Burgh.—J. Page to be ens. *v.* M'Intosh

63*d do.*—H. Harrison to be lieut. *v.* Snape

66*th do.*—W. Fillingham, Esq. to be paymaster, *v.* Nicholls

67*th do.*—Assist. surg. T. Batt, 44 foot to be assist. surg. *v.* Vetch

71*st do.*—Assist. Surg. C. H. Quin, from half pay, to be assist. surg.

82*d do.*—Ens. J. F. Delmont to be lieut.—Jas. Jackson to be ens. *v.* Delmont

87*th do.*—Ens. C. Cox to be lieut.— — Haddick to be ens. *v.* Cox

88*th do.*—Lieut. G. Bordwine 1 G. B. to be lieut.

89*th do.*—Ens. J. Maguire to be lieut.—R. Simpson to be ens. *v.* Maguire.

90*th do.*—Ens. F. Mason to be lieut.—W. Sweeney to be ens. *v.* Mason

96*th do.*—Ens. and adj. J. Cudbertson to have the rank of lieut.—Ens. G. Gordon to be lieut.—M. Balfour to be ens. *v.* Gordon.—J. Ormsby to be ens. *v.* Dougan

1*st W. I. R.*—Ens. J. Bissett, 42 foot to be ens. *v.* Anton

6*th do.*—Lieut. Hon. H. Percy, 7 foot to be capt. *v.* Henry

Royal African Corps.—Ens. A. Lymburner to be lieut. *v.* Higgins appointed to 46 foot.—C. Redmond to be ens. *v.* Lymburner

5*th R. V. B.*—Capt. D. Nixon, 6 R. V. B. to be capt. *v.* Campbell

Brevet.—Maj. G. W. Phipps, inspector of the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, to be lieut. col.

8*th W. I. R.*—S. Grier, lately superseded as lieut. to be reinstated

October 18.

2*d Life Guards.*—J. Moore, Esq. to be surgeon, *v.* Bactar

4*th Dragoons.*—Cornet D. J. Webb to be lieut. *v.* Phibbs

9*th Lt. Dragoons.*—Lieut. T. Forster from h. p. 1 drag. guards, to be lieut.

10*th do.*—Hon. J. Coventry to be cornet, *v.* Williams

14*th do.*—Cornet T. Gaitside to be lieut. *v.* Cracraft.—Lieut. T. Crawford, 95 foot to be cornet, *v.* Gaitside

16*th do.*—Lieut. G. Vernon, 23 lt. drag. to be lieut. *v.* Bolton who exch.

23*d do.*—Lieut. A. Bolton, 16 lt. drag. to be lieut. *v.* Vernon.

1*st Foot.*— — Henderson to be ens. *v.* Carnevale dismissed

8*th Foot.*—Ens. J. M'Mahon to be lieut. *v.* G. Brown
11*th do.*—Lieu. G. Peale to be capt. *v.* Baron Eben
15*th do.*—Ens. J. P. King to be lieut.
20*th do.*—Lieut. R. Bloomfield, Baillie's reg. to be ens. *v.* Wheeler who exch.
23*d do.*—2d lieut. L. Ball to be 1st lieut.—W. H. Brownson to be 2d lieut. *v.* Ball
34*th do.*—Maj. J. Bodkin, h. p. 9 foot to be maj. *v.* Browne, who exch.
42*d do.*—A. Burnett to be ens. *v.* Heathcote
43*d do.*—E. Edge to be ens. *v.* Ridout.— — Creighton to be ens. *v* Price
46*th do.*—S. L. Calder to be ens. *v.* Prevost
49*th do.*—Capt. C. Plenderleath to be maj. *v.* Gore.—G. Knox to be ens. *v.* Pasher
60*th do.*—Capt. P. Hay, 89 foot to be capt. *v.* Fortescue who exch.
73*d do.*—Maj. M. C. O'Connell, 5 W. I. R. to be maj. *v.* M'Donald, dismissed.—H. Jackson to be ens. *v.* M'Donald
75*th do.*—Lieut. J. L. Young, h. p. 60 foot to be lieut. *v.* Wilkins who exch.
76*th do.*—Ens. C. Hatchell, 17 foot, to be lieut. *v.* Shears
83*d do.*—Hosp. mate, W. Ward, to be assist. surg.
89*th do.*—Capt. W. L. Fortescue to be capt. *v.* Hay
90*th do.*—Lieut. F. Livingstone, 26 foot, to be capt. *v.* Paterson
1*st W. I. R.*—Ens. W. R. Lewin, 90 foot, to be lieut. *v.* Stuart
Baillie's Reg.—Ens. R. Wheeler, 20 foot, to be 2d lieut. *v.* Bloomfield
1*st G. B.*—Lieut. H. Mayhew, 88 foot, to be lieut. *v.* Bordwine—C. Smith to be ens. *v.* Dillon
1*st R. V. B.*— — Hicks, late 73 foot, to be ens. *v.* Early
6*th do.*—Capt. C. Roberts, 37 foot, to be capt. *v.* Nixon
8*th do.*—Lieut. Jas Stewart to be adj. *v.* Ashurst
Staff.—H. J. Reynett, Esq. to be paym. of a recruiting district.—Assist. commis. R. Manby, to be a dep. comm. of acc. to the forces.—G. T. Courteney to be assist. comm. of stores, &c.
Garrison.—Lieut. N. Ashurst, 8 R. V. B. to be town major of Portsmouth, *v.* Grant
Memorandum.—Ens. C. Hannam, 5 foot, is superseded, being absent without leave
The undermentioned appointments, as stated in the Gazettes of 25th March, 9th August, and 7th October last, have not taken place
9*th Lt. Dragoons.*—Assist. surg. J. Arthur, 6 drag. to be assist. surg.
17*th Foot.*—Ens. C. Hatchell to be lieut.
47*th do.*—L. Campbell to be ens.
75*th do.*—Ens. J. Scott to be lieut. *v.* Cooper

October 21.

9*th Lt. Dragoons.*—Capt. G. Gore, 15 foot, to be capt. *v.* Blake, who exch.
15*th Foot.*—Capt. M. G. Blake, 9 lt. drag. to be capt. *v.* Gore
Memorandum.—The exchange between surg. Jordan 7th lt. drag. and surg. Stratton, 90 foot, as stated in the Gazette 7th inst. has not taken place

October 25.

4*th Dragoons.*—H. Patrickson, Esq. (late capt. in the rrg.) to be paym. *v.* Sleper
9*th Lt. Dragoons.*—Hosp. mate, — Luby, to be assist. surg. *v.* Davis superseded
1*st Foot.*—J. Harding to be ens. *v.* Graham
3*d Foot.*—Lt. I. Colthurst to be capt. *v.* O'Dell
9*th do.*——Ens. Percivall 90 foot, to be ens. *v.* White who exch.—J. Ackland to be ens. *v.* Cornewall
15*th do.*—Ens. W. Baggot to be lieut.—R. Lewis to be ens. *v.* Baggot
18*th do.*—Hospital mate, W. Seaman to be assist. surg. *v.* Ligertwood
24*th do.*—Capt. M. Aylmer H. P. to be capt. *v.* Drew, who exch.
32*d do.*—Ens. W. H. Thornton to be lieut.—H. G. Carpenter to be ens. *v.* Thornton
34*th do.*—2d Lt. A. Ferguson, 21 foot, to be lieut. *v.* Brown
36*th do.*—Ens. O. Jones to be lieut. *v.* Johnstone, superseded.—R. Barton to be ens. *v.* Jones'
37*th do.*—Capt. G. Brock, Canada fencibles, to be capt. *v.* Roberts
41*st do.*—T. Gould to be ens. *v.* Lundie
49*th do.*—Hosp. mate, W. Robertson to be assist. surg. *v.* Brown
50*th do.*—Capt. W. A. Gordon, H. P. to be capt. *v.* Rogers who exch.
59*th do.*—J. Black to be ens. *v.* Sheehy
60*th do.*—Ens. J. Gregory to be lieut. *v.* De Blin
61*st do.*—J. Bear to be ens. *v.* Masterton
62*d do.*—Assist. Surg. R. Brown, 49 foot, to be assist. surg. *v.* Hill
64*th do.*—Ens. J. Bennett to be lieut. *v.* Nickson
68*th Foot.*—Capt. J. Atkinson, York L. I. V. to be cap. *v.* Stewart
79*th do.*——Lt. H. Mc. Gregor to be capt.—Ens. Fraser to be lieut. *v.* Mc. Gregor, serj. maj.—J. Cameron to be ens.—Brown do.—G. Campbell do.
89*th do.*—Capt. H. Annesley, 1st. G. B. to be capt. *v.* O Dunoghue exch.—Ens. T. Sheehy, 59 foot to be lieut.—Ens. J. Armstrong do.—Malone to be ens. *v.* Armstrong
90*th do.*—Ens. T. White, 9 foot, to be ens. *v.* Percival
1*st W. I. R.*—Lt. J. Patterson, 28 foot, to be capt. *v.* Mc. Guffog
2*d do.*—Lt. Col. J. Irving, H. P. to be lieut. col. *v.* Sir G. Leith exch.
York L. I. V.——Capt. J. Stewart, 68 foot, to be capt. *v.* Atkinson
1*st G. B.*—Capt. D. O'Donoghue, 89 foot, to be capt. *v.* Annesley.—Ens. A. Graham, royals, to be ens. *v.* Gibbs, superseded
Canadian fencibles.—Lt. R. Burke, 10 foot, to be capt. *v.* Brock

The King's German Legion.

2*d Dragoons.*—V. Sergel to be surg.—F. Dettmar to be assist. do. hosp. mate—Seiler to be do. *v.* Cramer superseded
1*st Lt. Dragoons.*——H. Bergmann to be assist. surg.
2*d do.*—C. F. Schmersal, do.
3*d do.*—C. Groskopf to be surg.—G. Risaking to be assist. do.—L. Whal. do.
1*st Lt. Inf.*—Grupe to be surg. *v.* Dynely.—Fehland to be assist. surg.
2*d Lt Inf.*—H. F. A. Müller to be assist. surg.
1*st Line.*—Kessler to be surg.
2*d do.*—Rathje to be assist. do.
3*d do.*—Schuntermann, do.—L. Kleine, do.
4*th do.*—Neumann, do.—Mattheici, do.
5*th do.*—Kohrs, do.—J. Deppe, do.

UNIVERSITY PROMOTIONS.

Oxford.

Nov. 15. The appointment of the Rev. J. Cole, DD. Fellow of Exeter College, as one of the Public Preachers, in the room of the Rev. Mr. Philpotts of Magdalen College, who has resigned, was approved in full convocation.—In the same convocation, the appointment of the Rev. G. Shepherd, M.A. Fellow of University, and the Rev. R. Dixon, M.A. Fellow of Queen's, to be Public Examiners, was approved.

The following is a list of the ten Public Preachers:—The Rev. M. Marlow, D.D. President of St. John's; Rev. J. Parsons, D.D. Master of Balliol; Rev. J. Cole, D.D. Fellow of Exeter; Rev. R. Lawrence, D.C.L. of University; Rev. J. Buckland, B.D. of Corpus Christi; Rev. W. Wood, B.D. Student of Christ Church; Rev. R. Churton, M.A. of Brasenose; Rev. H. Hutton, M.A. of Balliol; Rev. G. Heathcote, M.A. of New College; Rev. J. Browne, M.A. of Corpus Christi.

The six Public Examiners are the following:—the Rev. G. Smith, Fellow of Magdalen; Rev. J. Dean, of Brasenose; Rev. W. Corne, Student of Christ Church; Rev. R. Hughes, Fellow of Jesus; Rev. G. Shepherd, Fellow of University; Rev. R. Dixon, of Queen's.

Nov. 19. Rev. T. A Methuen, B.A. of Oriel, admitted M.A.; Messrs. W. Vaux of Christ Church, and R. H. Carne, of Exeter College, admitted B.A.

Nov. 26. Rev. T. Welles, B.D. of Worcester College, admitted D.D.—Mr. Townsend Selwyn, of Christ Church, and the Rev. C. D'Oyley Aplin of Lincoln College, B.A. admitted M.A.—Messrs. W. M. Hoblyn of Christ Church, T. Knox, of Brasenose; C. Meryon and C. J. Craven of St. John's, admitted B.A.

Nov. 26. The Rev. Dr. W. Cleaver was presented to his Majesty by Earl Spencer, upon his being translated from the Bishoprick of Bangor, to St. Asaph, when the Rev. Prelate did homage before his Majesty with the usual ceremonies.

Nov. 29. The following gentlemen duly appointed to succeed those of the Public Preachers who will go out of office at Michaelmas next, were approved in convocation:—The Rev. Dr. Beeke, of Oriel; Rev. Dr. Barrow, of Queen's; Rev. Mr. Kett, of Trinity; Rev. Mr. Williams, of Christ Church; Rev. Mr. Crow, of New College.

The same day Mr. T. Moore, B.A. was admitted Actual Fellow of Balliol College; and Mr. W. Vaux, B.A. of Christ Church, and Mr. C. Barter, Scholar of Balliol, were elected Probationer Fellows of that society.

Dec. 3. Mr. D. Hughes, B.A. and Mr. E. Thomas, Commoner of Jesus College, elected Scholars of that society.

Cambridge.

Nov. 19. Mr. W. L. Pinder, of Pembroke Hall, and Mr. F. S. Bevan, of Emmanuel College, admitted M.A.

Mr. T. Turton, B.A. elected a Skirne Fellow of Catharine Hall.

The Rev. J. Walker, M. A., Tutor of Trinity Hall, has been instituted by the Lord Bishop of Lincoln to the rectory of Cottered, in Herts, vacated by the death of the Rev. A. Trollope.

The Rev. R. Jones, B.D. of St. John's, is presented by the Master and Fellows to the rectory of Soulderne in Oxfordshire, vacated by the death of the Rev. John Horseman, B.D.

The Rev. P. Leigh, B.A. of Trinity College, is instituted by the Lord Bishop of Chester to a mediety of the rectory of Lymm, in the county of Chester, in the presentation of Egerton Leigh, Esq. of Twemlow, in the same county.

The Rev. J. Mitchell, L L.B. is instituted to the rectory of Toynton, in the county of Gloucester, in the presentation of the Dean and Chapter of the Cathedral.

The Rev. C. Coxwell, M.A. Chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Bristol, is empowered, by a dispensation, to hold the vicarage of Bibury, together with the rectory of Barnsley, both in the county and diocese of Gloucester.

At an ordination held in Ely Cathedral, November 16, the following gentlemen were ordained by the Lord Bishop of the diocese:—*Deacons.* F. H. Maberly, B. A. and H. Wiles, M.A. both of Trinity College; E. Simons, B.A., of St. John's; W. Davey, B.A. of Bene't.—*Priests.* W. Clarke, B.A., of Bene't; J. Rose, M.A., of Trinity; H. Finch, M.A., of Christ's.

The Rev. J. Barker, B.A., of Trinity, is instituted to the rectory of Newmarket St. Mary, with the vicarage of Wood Ditton annexed, in the presentation of the Duke of Rutland.

The Rev. M. Whish, B.A., of Caius, Prebendary of the Cathedral Church at Salisbury, is instituted on his own petition, by the Lord Bishop of Bath and Wells, to the vicarages of Bedminster and Abbots Leigh, with the chapels of St. Mary Redcliffe, and St. Thomas in Bristol.

The Rev. J. Lloyd, M.A., one of the senior Fellows of King's, is presented by the Provost and Fellows to the valuable vicarage of Lewesden, in Northamptonshire, vacated by the death of the Rev. J. Goodwin.

The Rev. W. Hardyman, B.D., senior Fellow of Emmanuel, is presented by the Master and Fellows to the rectory of Great Lussenham, in the county of Rutland, vacant by the death of the Rev. W. Affleck.

PRICE OF MEAT.*

Smithfield, per stone of 8lb. to sink the offal.

	Beef.	Mutton.	Veal.	Pork.	Lamb.
Nov. 21	5s. 0d.	5s. 2d.	5s. 6d.	6s. 0d.	0s. 0d
28	5 0	5 4	5 6	6 0	0 0
Dec. 5	5 2	5 4	6 0	5 9	0 0
12	5 6	5 8	6 0	6 4	0 0
19	6 0	6 2	6 5	6 8	0 0

Newgate and Leadenhall, by the carcase.

Nov. 21	4 0	4 4	5 0	6 0	0 0
28	4 0	4 4	5 6	6 0	0 0
Dec. 5	4 4	4 6	5 6	5 8	0 0
12	4 6	4 10	5 10	6 4	0 0
19	4 8	5 8	5 6	5 8	0 0

	St. James'.* Hay.	Straw.	Whitechapel.* Hay.	Straw.
Nov. 21	£4 16 0	£2 8 0	£4 18 0	£2 8 0
28	4 14 6	2 18 6	4 12 0	2 8 0
Dec. 5	4 12 0	2 15 6	4 18 0	2 10 0
12	4 18 0	2 11 0	4 16 0	2 8 0
19	4 15 0	2 14 0	4 16 0	2 6 0

PRICE OF HOPS.

	Bags.		Pockets.	
Kent	£5 0 to £6 2	Kent	£4 14 to £5 12	
Sussex	5 0 6 0	Sussex	4 14 5 4	
Essex	5 0 6 0	Farn.	8 0 9 9	

PRICE OF LEATHER.*

Butts, 50 to 56lb. each	24d.
Dressing Hides	18½
Crop Hides for cutting	24
Flat Ordinary	18½
Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb. per dozen, per lb.	40
Ditto 50 to 70	41

TALLOW,* London average per stone of 8lb. 3s. 8½d.

Soap, yellow, 74s.; mottled, 86s.; curd, 90s.

Candles, per dozen, 10s. 6d.; moulds, 11s. 6d.

COALS IN THE RIVER.

	Sunderland.		Newcastle.	
Nov. 24	41s. 0d. to 43s. 0d.		42s. 0d. to 50s. 6d.	
Dec. 1	39 3	40 0	38 0	49 0
8	34 3	40 0	37 3	49 6
15	33 0	39 9	39 0	50 0

Delivered at 12s. per chaldron advance.

PRICE OF BREAD.

	Peck Loaf.	Half Peck.	Quartern.
Nov. 27	4s. 5d.	2s. 2½d.	1s. 1½d.
Dec. 4	4 5	2 2½	1 1½
11	4 5	2 2½	1 1½
18	4 4	2 2	1 1

Those marked thus *, are taken at the highest Price of the market.

LONDON WEEKLY RETURNS OF WHEAT.

Nov. 15	6552 quarters.	Average	73s. 11½d.
22	7651 — — — —		75 1½
29	8878 — — — —		72 3½
Dec. 6	11770 — — — —		76 6½

FLOUR.

Nov. 14	15521 sacks.	Average	73s. 10½d.
21	13535 — — — —		73 6½
28	21736 — — — —		73 5½
Dec. 5	41014 — — — —		73 11½
12	20974 — — — —		74 3½

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Nov.	8 o'clock Morning.	Noon 1 o'clock.	11 o'clock Night.	Height of Barom. Inches.	Dryness by Leslie's Hygrom.	
21	46	48	37	29,02	2	Fair
22	34	45	37	,50	12	Fair
23	38	47	46	,65	0	Rain
24	49	55	55	,90	3	Cloudy
25	55	57	58	,71	0	Small rain
26	54	50	47	,38	0	Rain
27	46	48	46	30,02	0	Rain
28	46	57	51	29,99	10	Fair
29	52	59	42	,70	7	Showery
30	41	46	46	,78	10	Showery
Dec.						[at night
1	50	59	51	,02	7	Fair &stormy
2	40	42	41	28,80	21	Fair
3	40	44	40	29,67	10	Cloudy
4	38	47	44	,72	0	Rain
5	50	54	50	,48	16	Fair
6	50	50	44	,35	5	Cloudy
7	40	47	42	,34	0	Rain
8	40	45	42	,12	0	Rain
9	43	45	40	,50	0	Rain
10	38	44	40	,40	5	Fair
11	41	48	40	,40	5	Fair
12	41	48	54	,42	10	Fair
13	55	54	46	,09	0	Stormy
14	45	45	44	,49	0	Rain
15	44	45	50	,70	11	Fair
16	52	55	55	,69	5	Stormy
17	54	55	53	,72	0	Rain
18	53	54	54	,74	0	Rain
19	43	47	43	,65	6	Fair
20	44	51	44	,32	12	Fair

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

	November 28.	December 5.	December 12.	December 19.
Amsterdam	36-8—2 u.	36-8—2 u.	36-9—2 u.	36-9—2 u.
Ditto at sight	35-11	35-11	36	36
Rotterdam, c. f.	11-11—2 u.	11-11—2 u.	11-11—2 u.	11-11—2 u.
Hamburgh	34 8—2 u.	34-8—2 u.	34-8—2 u.	34-8—2½ u.
Altona —	34-9—2 u.	34-9—2 u.	34-9—2 u.	34-9—2½ u.
Paris —	24-4 liv.	24-8 liv.	24-8 liv.	24-10 liv.
Ditto 2 us.	24-8	24-12	24-12	24-14
Bordeaux —	24 8	24-12	24-12	24 14
Cadiz —	39½ effect.	39½ effect.	39½ effect	39½ effect.
Madrid —	39½ effect.	39½ effect.	39½ effect	39½ effect.
Bilboa —	38¾	38¾	38¾	38¾
Leghorn —	51	51	50	48½
Naples —	44	44	44	44
Genoa —	47 liv. pic.	47 liv. pic.	47 liv. pic.	47 liv. pic.
Venice, n. C.	52 ditto	52 ditto	52 ditto	52 ditto
Lisbon —	62	62	61¾	61½
Oporto —	62	62	61½	61
Dublin —	12	11¾	12	12
Cork —	43	12½	12½	12¾

PRICES OF BULLION.

	Per oz. £ s. d.	Per oz. £ s. d.	Per oz. £ s. d.	Per oz. £ s. d.
Portugal gold in coin and bars	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0
Doubloons	—	—	—	—
New dollars	0 5 5½	0 5 5½	0 5 5½	0 5 5½
Silver in bars	0 5 6½	0 5 6½	0 5 6½	0 5 6½
New Louis, each	—	—	—	—
Agio on Bank of Holland, 5½p.c.				

London Premiums of Insurance, 19th December, 1806.

To Bengal, out and home ..... 12 *gs.*
Madras and China, out and home ..... 12 *gs.*
Bengal or China ..... 7 *gs.*
Senegambia ..... 10 *gs.*
Madeira ..... 6 *gs.* ret. 3
Windward and Leeward Islands ... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
Jamaica ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
South Whale-fishery and back ..... 20 *gs.*
United States of America ..... 3 *gs.*
Smyrna, Constantin. Mediter. } 20 *gs.* ret. 10
Nice, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples }
Lisbon and Oporto ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
Bremen and Hambro' ..... 3 *gs.*
Baltic, Lebaw, and Petersburgh
Carron, Leith, Perth, and Aberdeen ..... 2 *gs.*
Glasgow ..... 4 *gs.*
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, and Newry } 3 *gs.*
Belfast and Londonderry ..... }
Limerick ..... 4 *gs.* ret. 2
Portsmouth ..... 1½ *g.*
Poole, Exeter, Dartm. Plym. Falm. ... 1½ *gs.*
Bristol, Chester, and Liverpool ..... 3 *gs.*
Yarmouth, Lynn, Hull and Newcastle 1½ *g.*

London, Bristol, and Liverpool.

Africa, and thence to Place Sale in } 18 *gs.*
West-India or America ..... }
Bristol to Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, 1½ *g.*

Bristol, Liverpool, Dublin, and Cork.

Madeira ..... 6 *gs.* ret. 3
Windw. and Leeward Isl. ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
Jamaica ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
United States of America ..... 2 *gs.*
Canada ..... 6 *gs.*
Mediterranean ..... 18 *gs.* ret. 9
Lisbon and Oporto ..... 6 *gs.* ret. 3

Poole & Dartmouth—Exeter & Plymouth

Newfoundland ..... 4 *gs.*
Dublin to Liverpool and Chester ..... 20*s.*
Boston, New-York, and Philadelphia .. 3 *gs.*
Newfoundland to Jamaica, W. & L. Isl. 25 *gs.*
Mediterranean ..... 25 *gs.*
Portugal ..... 15 *gs.* ret. 5
Bay of Honduras to Charles-Town, } 10 *gs.*
Philadelphia, and New-York ... }
England or Ireland ..... 25 *gs.*
Jamaica to Lond. Brist. Dubl. } 20 *gs.* ret. 5
Liverp. ..... }

Windward and Leeward Islands.

London, Bristol, Dublin, and } 18 *gs.* ret. 6
Liverpool ..... }
Islands to New-York or Philadelphia, 12 *gs.*
Africa to Windward and Leeward } 15 *gs.*
Islands or America ..... }
East-Indies to London ..... 15 *gs.*
St. Helena to London ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
Canada to London ..... 10 *gs.* ret. 5
Baltic to Liverp. Cork, and Dublin, 8 *gs.* ret. 2
Riga and *Prussian Ports to* London ... 6 *gs.*

Current Prices of Merchandize, 19th December, 1806.

American pot-ash, per cwt.	£2	15	0	to £3	5	0	Lead white	£54	0	0 to £55	0	0
Ditto pearl	3	10	0		4	0	0	Logwood chips	14	0	0	16	0	0
Barilla	1	14	0		2	0	0	Madder, Dutch crop, cwt.	4	5	0	4	18	0
Brandy, Coniac .... gal.	0	18	0		0	19	6	Mahogany ——— ft.	0	1	0	0	2	5
Ditto Spanish	0	15	6		0	17	0	Oak plank, Dantz. —last	11	0	0	12	0	0
Camphire, refined .... lb.	0	5	6		0	6	0	Ditto American —	9	5	0	10	15	0
Ditto unrefined, cwt.	20	0	0		23	15	0	Oil, Lucca,—25 gal. jar	13	15	0	14	0	0
Cochineal, garbled .... lb.	1	4	0		1	8	0	Ditto spermaceti —ton	68	0	0	70	0	0
Ditto East-India ..	0	3	3		0	6	0	Ditto whale ———	28	0	0	29	0	0
Coffee, fine ..... cwt.	6	10	0		7	0	0	Ditto Florence, ½ chest	2	7	0	2	9	0
Ditto ordinary	4	10	0		5	5	0	Pitch, Stockholm —cwt.	0	14	6	0	15	6
Cotton-wool, Surinam, lb.	1	9	0		1	11	0	Quicksilver ——— lb.	0	6	0	0	7	0
Ditto Jamaica ..	0	1	4½		0	1	8	Raisins, bloom ——cwt.	4	10	0	6	12	0
Ditto Smyrna	0	1	3		0	1	6	Rice, Carolina ———	1	5	0	2	3	0
Ditto East-India ..	0	1	9		0	2	0	Ditto East-India———	1	16	0	1	18	0
Currants, Zant .... cwt.	3	17	0		4	0	0	Rum, Jamaica ——gal.	0	3	6	0	4	6
Deals, Dantz..... piece	1	13	0		1	17	0	Ditto Leeward I. ——	0	3	0	0	3	9
Ditto Petersburgh .. 11.	22	0	0		24	0	0	Saltpetre, East-India, cwt.	2	12	0	2	13	0
Ditto Stockholm	39	0	0		41	0	0	Shellack ———	4	0	0	11	5	0
Elephants Teeth .... cwt.	25	0	0		38	0	0	Thrown-silk, Italian, lb.	1	12	0	2	10	0
———— Scrivell	18	0	0		25	0	0	Raw-silk, Ditto ——	0	18	0	1	14	0
Flax, Riga..... ton	69	0	0		70	0	0	Ditto China——	1	17	8	2	0	0
Ditto Petersburgh	67	0	0		68	0	0	Ditto Beng. novi	1	16	0	2	0	0
Galls, Turkey..... cwt.	5	5	0		7	0	0	Ditto organzine	1	9	0	1	18	0
Geneva, Hollands .. gal.	1	0	0		1	1	0	Tar, Stockholm ——bar.	1	9	0	1	10	1
Ditto English	0	8	0		0	11	0	Tin in blocks ——cwt.	6	6	0	—		
Gum Arabic, Turkey, cwt.	6	0	0		10	15	0	Tobacco, Maryl. ——lb.	0	1	0	0	1	1
Ditto Sandrach	12	10	0		14	0	0	Ditto Virginia ———	0	0	4¾	0	0	0
Ditto Tragacanth	19	10	0		21	0	0	Whale-fins ———ton	20	0	0	25	0	0
Gum Seneca..... cwt.	6	0	0		7	0	0	Red port———pipe	66	0	0	98	0	0
Hemp, Riga..... ton	66	0	0		0	0	0	Lisbon ———	45	0	0	91	0	0
Ditto Petersburgh	66	0	0		0	0	0	Madeira ———	70	0	0	122	0	0
Indigo, Carracc. .... lb.	0	11	3		0	12	9	Sherry ———butt	80	0	0	95	0	0
Ditto East-India	0	11	0		0	14	6	Mountain ———	72	0	0	80	0	0
Iron, British, bars, ton	18	0	0		19	0	0	Vidonia ———hogs.	69	0	0	76	0	0
Ditto Swedish	25	0	0		26	0	0	Calcavella ———pipe	84	0	0	95	0	0
Ditto Norway	24	0	0		25	0	0	Claret———hogs.	35	0	0	98	0	0
Ditto Archangel———	25	0	0		26	0	0	Tallow, English——cwt.	3	4	6	—		
Lead in pigs———fod.	38	0	0		—			Ditto Russia, white —	2	16	0	2	17	0
Ditto red ———ton	36	0	0		37	0	0	Ditto —— yellow—	2	16	0	2	17	0

Daily Prices of STOCKS. 21st NOVEMBER to 19th DECEMBER, 1806.

	Bank Stock.	3 p. Cent. Reduced.	3 p. Cent. Consols.	4 p. Cent. Cons. 1780.	3 p. Cent. Def.	Navy 5 per Cent.	Long Annuities.	Consol Short Ann.	5 p. Cent. 1797.	Omnium.	Imperial 3 p. Cent.	Ditto Annuities.	India Stock.	India Scrip.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Annuit.	New Ditto.	Navy and Vict. Bills.	3d. Exched. Bills.	3½ d. Ditto.	Lottery Tickets. £. s. d.	Consols for Acct.	Irish Omnium.	Irish 5 p. Cent.
Nov. 21	213	61¼	61¼	79⅜	—	96¼	17 7/16	—	—	4⅝	60	—	—	—	5 P	—	—	—	—	—	5 P	—	61¼	—	—
22	—	61⅛	61⅛	79⅜	—	96⅜	17 7/16	—	—	4⅜	60	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
24	—	60⅝	61¼	79⅛	—	96⅜	17 7/16	—	—	4⅜	59⅝	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
25	212¼	60⅝	61⅜	78⅞	—	96	17 7/16	—	—	3⅜	—	—	182¾	—	3 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	62	—	—
26	—	60⅝	61⅜	78⅞	—	96⅛	17 7/16	—	—	3⅜	59¾	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	61¼	—	—
27	212	60⅝	61⅜	78⅞	—	96	17 7/16	1⅛	—	3⅜	—	8	182	—	3 P	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	—	61⅜	—	—
28	212	60⅝	60⅝	78⅛	—	95¾	17⅛	—	—	3	59⅜	7 15/16	181¾	—	3 P	66¼	—	—	—	—	—	—	61⅜	—	—
29	—	59⅝	59⅝	77⅛	—	95	17 1/16	—	—	1⅜	—	7 15/16	179¾	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19 15 0	—	—	—
Dec. 1	—	58⅝	58⅝	76⅝	—	94	16 15/16	1 7/16	—	1	—	7⅞	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19 15 0	60	—	—
2	209¾	58⅜	59⅛	76¼	—	*shut*	16 15/16	1 7/16	—	¼	57⅛	7⅞	—	—	1 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	60⅛	88¾	—
3	209¾	59⅛	*shut*	76⅜	—	—	15⅞	—	—	¼	57⅛	7⅞	—	—	par	—	—	—	—	—	1 P	—	60⅛	89⅛	—
4	212	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	17 1/16	—	—	1¼	—	7 15/16	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—	—	2 P	—	60⅛	89⅛	—
5	—	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	1	58⅛	—	—	—	3 P	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	—	60⅛	—	—
6	—	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	—	—	—	1	58⅛	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	60⅛	—	—
8	—	59⅝	—	77⅛	—	—	17	—	—	1¼	58⅛	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	60⅛	—	—
9	211	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	1¼	—	7 15/16	—	—	3 D	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	—	60⅛	—	—
10	210⅝	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	1¼	58⅛	—	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	—	60⅛	—	—
11	210⅝	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	1¼	—	7 15/16	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	—	60⅛	—	—
12	—	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	1¼	58⅛	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	—	60⅛	89⅛	—
13	—	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	1¼	58⅛	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	—	60⅛	—	—
15	—	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	1¼	—	7 15/16	—	—	3 P	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	19 16 0	60⅛	—	—
16	210¼	59⅝	—	77¼	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	1¼	58⅛	—	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	19 16 0	60⅛	—	—
17	210	59⅜	—	77⅛	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	1¼	57⅝	7⅞	—	—	1 P	—	—	—	—	—	1 P	—	60⅛	89⅛	—
18	210	58⅞	—	76⅝	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	¼	57⅝	—	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	60⅛	—	—
19	209¾	58⅞	—	76⅝	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	¼	—	7⅞	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	—	60⅛	—	—
20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	57⅝	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Errata.—Page 576, line 19, for *Blätten* read *Blätter*; line 22, for *Censuraechere* read *Censurate here*. Line 5 from the bottom, for *du elegant wilt* read *die elegant wett*. The Siege of Beauvais marked A. D. 1471, Panorama, p. 622, is, by Henault and Mezeray, placed in 1472.